

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### AN AUSPICIOUS PLAN OF ASSISTANT TEACHING

For years there has been much admiration among certain educators in this country of features of the plan used in Germany for training teachers for secondary schools—especially of the features that join the training in the field of education and a long period of apprenticeship in teaching at the end of the whole program. Several expositions and interpretations of the plan are available to Americans, one of the most recent and briefest of which is that by Professor Esther Crane, published in the March, 1934, *School Review* ("The Training of Secondary-School Teachers in Prussia—Some Impressions"). Interest in the plan has of late been extended and accentuated: this increase of interest has been stimulated by the surplus of teachers during the depression and by the general movement to elevate standards of teacher preparation. A new plan of "assistant teaching" in operation in the Bronxville, New York, schools appears to be a promising adaptation of the plan, although the description quoted below makes no reference to a European source. The description is drawn from the *Bronxville Schools Bulletin* for September, 1934, and appears over the signature of Willard W. Beatty, superintendent of schools.

Beginning in September, 1933, the Bronxville schools embarked on a new plan, by which recent college graduates are accepted as unpaid assistants for one or two years. While it is intended to expand the plan to include a limited number of exceptionally qualified persons at each level of the schools from the entering group through the high school, the majority of the first year's assistants were in the high school. Here their presence offered some relief to the more heavily loaded members of the regular staff and assured attention to individual pupil needs which would not otherwise have been possible.

#### ADVANTAGES TO BRONXVILLE

Tried out experimentally for several years prior to 1933 when only one or two assistants were accepted, the plan has demonstrated certain important advantages to both the local schools and the student assistants. While at no time have these assistants been asked to do work which would replace salaried employees of the schools, their services offer the following advantages:

1. Pupils whose work is found to be in error have the immediate advantage of individual remedial instruction from the assistant when corrected work is returned.
2. More experienced assistants are allowed to work intensively with small groups of pupils, under the guidance of the regular teacher, thereby increasing the amount of individual attention to the pupil.
3. Regular teachers to whom assistants are assigned are relieved of much routine correction of written work.
4. In case of [a] teacher's absence, the assistant, who is familiar with the work of the class and who knows the students, can carry on, in place of a substitute who at best can know little about the work of individual pupils.
5. Young college graduates of high caliber bring enthusiasm and a fresh point of view to both teachers and pupils.
6. Vacancies in the teaching staff may from time to time be filled by the best qualified assistants, who will have the immense advantage of a year of familiarity with the work of the Bronxville schools.

#### ADVANTAGES TO ASSISTANTS

To the assistants themselves, the educational opportunity compares favorably with the experience an internship in one of our leading hospitals offers to a young doctor and has similar values:

1. At a time when there are more teachers than positions, the plan offers opportunity to college graduates to secure a year or more of practical experience in a good school system under the guidance of superior teachers, thus better fitting themselves to compete for positions.
2. Through a co-operative arrangement with Teachers College, Columbia University, a student may enjoy a full day of assistant teaching in the local schools and through seminars both in Bronxville and New York, complete the necessary professional requirements for certification—in fact through two years

of such an arrangement, with summer work under Teachers College auspices, qualify for a Master's degree in education.

3. Through sharing in the correction of papers and other routine work, the assistant establishes a working familiarity with subject matter and a knowledge of remedial procedure, learning that effective teaching depends as much upon adequate prior preparation and conscientious follow-up as upon classroom performance.

4. Through daily observation of the work of two or more good teachers, the assistant has opportunity to compare techniques and watch their outcomes. Through frequent conferences with the regular teachers, in which the strength and weakness displayed by the student are freely canvassed, the student gains constructive help in improving his own teaching approach.

5. Through actual opportunities for direct teaching, first with individuals, then with small groups, and lastly with full-sized classes, the assistant can apply the results of observation to his own teaching and, through the advice and criticism of the regular teacher, improve it.

During the year 1933-34, twelve assistants, six men and six women, took advantage of this opportunity. Four of these already held Masters' degrees. Economic circumstances dictated a modification of the plans of several, and only eight completed the original schedule. Three of these were added to the permanent staff of the Bronxville schools for the school year 1934-35.

#### TEACHERS COLLEGE ARRANGEMENT

During the last few years Teachers College has tried several experiments in the variation of its program, both upon the graduate level, upon the undergraduate level, and in New College, making possible an individualized program for each student and including a variety of opportunities for practical experience in the field. A limited number of college graduates of ability and promise, satisfactory to the authorities of Teachers College and the administrative staff of the Bronxville schools, may be permitted to undertake a combined program of teaching in Bronxville and study in Teachers College. While no "time service" is required as a part of any phase of this plan for assistant teachers, the co-operative program leading to the Master's degree in education contemplates a maximum of two years of residence. Students who wish to complete only the professional requirements leading to a New York State teaching certificate may be accepted for a single year including one summer session. The two-year plan contemplates two or three summers of work either at Teachers College or elsewhere under its direction.

During the school year the student will give full-time service in the Bronxville schools as an unpaid assistant and carry, in addition, professional courses in education and psychology at Bronxville, or at Teachers College in the late afternoon, evening, or on Saturday. During the second year the student will be expected to carry through a research project planned in conjunction with the program of assistant teaching in Bronxville. The satisfactory completion of

either the one- or the two-year arrangement will not be conditioned on time or unit accumulation but upon quality of achievement as determined by a rating on teaching success in Bronxville and a comprehensive written and oral examination at Teachers College.

The only expense connected with the co-operative plan between Bronxville and Teachers College is the University tuition fee of \$340 per year, which is exactly the same as for full-time residence work in the college. Prospective candidates for assistantships in Bronxville are urged to consider seriously this plan, especially if they have not completed the eighteen units of professional training required for New York State certification.

#### FIELDS OF EXPERIENCE OPEN

The Bronxville schools believe that they are able to offer exceptional opportunities for teaching experience. In the high schools we believe that the program is particularly strong in:

Science, where there are opportunities in general science, biology (both elementary and advanced), physics, and chemistry. The past year a new course, in which we are undertaking an integration of the sciences, has been introduced.

Languages (French, German, and Latin), where we are emphasizing the development of reading power. . . .

Social studies, where the current problem approach is being stressed.

English, where we are devoting a good deal of attention to creative writing.

Mathematics, where the emphasis has been on individualized teaching techniques.

Fine arts, where creative expression is encouraged.

Industrial arts, where work in copper and pewter has received unusual development.

Physical education, where a program of intramural sports involving a majority of the students has been in effect for eight years.

We believe that there are exceptional opportunities for able men in the field of elementary education and that the Bronxville schools offer to men and women interested in progressive teaching techniques an unusual occasion to familiarize themselves with modern practice. This last year, there has been inaugurated, in conjunction with Sarah Lawrence College, a nursery school for children between the ages of two and four. A limited number of assistants will be accepted in the nursery school. The Bronxville schools have also won a great deal of favorable attention for their work in elementary science and fine arts.

#### WHAT AN ASSISTANT DOES

The program of work in Bronxville will conform somewhat to the following procedure, subject to modification as the individual needs may determine. The assistant will be placed under the direct supervision of Bronxville classroom teachers for the full teaching period of the school day. On the nursery school and elementary level this will probably involve work with one teacher for at



least eighteen weeks, at which time the assistant may continue with the same teacher or be transferred to another teacher or grade level as may appear wisest. In the high school the assistant will be assigned to at least two different teachers, either in the same subject field or in different subject fields. The student will divide his full time between these two teachers for the first eighteen weeks and at the end of that time will continue for at least one period of the day with one of these teachers but will then take up work with at least one additional staff member. By this means we hope to offer to the student a desirable variety in personality contacts and procedures, while making sure that he will have the opportunity to do at least six weeks of independent teaching of a full-sized class group. Practically, it is our feeling that each student should have experience in at least two fields of work, and while we shall not insist upon this diversity, it will be our endeavor to encourage students to follow this plan.

The assistants as a group will meet with the superintendent of schools in seminar twice a week for discussion of problems in the field of educational philosophy and psychology growing out of their daily classroom experiences. Additional seminars in the late afternoon or evening in the study of current problems and educational philosophy are held by the regular Bronxville teaching staff once every two weeks, which the assistants will be expected to attend. They will also be expected to attend weekly faculty meetings of the schools in which they are working. Many opportunities are offered for continuing personal conferences between the assistants and the staff members and administrative officers of the schools. Every effort is made to create as realistic a situation for the assumption of teaching and administrative responsibility as though the student were a paid member of the staff. Students will not be accepted or continued who are not prepared to co-operate in maintaining this relationship, for it is the only basis upon which their services would be of value to the schools or their experience could be construed as valuable preparation for teaching responsibilities. We find that a year of work under these circumstances is in a majority of cases equivalent to a year of teaching experience in the average rural or village situation.

#### REGISTRATION AT TEACHERS COLLEGE NOT REQUIRED

While we believe that the plan of co-operative work at Bronxville and Teachers College is the more desirable arrangement, qualified candidates may be accepted as assistants who are not enrolled at the college. These assistants will be expected to meet all of the requirements as assistants in Bronxville and will be required to attend the seminars held in Bronxville. There will be no fees in connection with any of the work not taken for college credit. There are indications that a similar plan of assistant teaching in connection with certain graduate and undergraduate courses at Teachers College and at New York University may prove feasible. The Bronxville schools are entirely open-minded with regard to such possible arrangements and make but one stipulation—any student accepted as an assistant in Bronxville classes must be present daily

throughout the school year for at least half of the school day. No other plan of co-operation will be considered.

Students or experienced teachers wishing to be considered for such a year of assistant teaching in Bronxville should write directly to Willard W. Beatty, superintendent of schools, for an application form. Evidences of the student's scholastic success, personal qualifications, and potential capacity for teaching will be required. A personal interview is of course desirable. Where work with Teachers College is planned, application must also be made to the college.

For candidates accepted, the Bronxville schools can assume no financial responsibility but will be glad to co-operate in finding living quarters and otherwise aiding to make the year one of congenial associations. It is probable that a limited number of Bronxville families may be willing to offer board or room, or both, to a few students in exchange for domestic assistance or child care. Candidates who desire to make such arrangements should so state in their applications. Unfortunately, it may not be possible to reach a final decision with regard to such arrangements prior to August of each year.

The Bronxville schools of course assume no responsibility for the permanent placement of assistants under this plan. They will be entitled to the services of the Bureau of Educational Service of Teachers College, as are all other students of the college who have completed more than twelve units of residence work. However, the Bronxville schools will be happy to furnish credentials with regard to the teaching success of these assistants to any school official who may request it. Each year, a number of school principals and superintendents turn to us for recommendations with regard to desirable candidates for teaching positions who are familiar with the progressive philosophy and techniques. We hope that the program of assistant teaching outlined in this bulletin may contribute to the number of well-trained young people whom we can conscientiously recommend in response to such inquiries.

#### THE NEWLY ORGANIZED NATIONAL COUNCIL OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Announcement has been made of the formation of the National Council of Business Education. A booklet of information issued in September sets forth its "purpose, plan, and program." The distinctive function of the new organization, according to the announcement, is "to define national policies of business education," although the statement is made that, as a supplementary feature, certain special services will be rendered to member associations.

The Council is a central organization of affiliated national, regional, state, and local associations of business teachers. No individual business teacher can be a member of the Council except as a delegate of an association. Therefore, no dues are collected from individual teachers. The Council, according to the

constitution, is composed of the officers and the "representatives of affiliated organizations who may be the presidents and the immediately preceding presidents until such time as two representatives from each organization are elected. These delegates shall be elected for a term of one year."

The council plan, involving representation of associations rather than of individual memberships, says the announcement, has already been adopted by a number of the larger educational groups of the country, notably the American Council on Education. The list of affiliated associations is as follows: National Association of Commercial Teacher Training Institutions, American Association of Commercial Colleges, Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, Ohio Commercial Teachers Association, Commercial Education Association of New York City and Vicinity, Commercial Supervisory and Research Club of Greater Cleveland, Pi Omega Pi Fraternity, the Commercial Section of the Northeastern Ohio Teachers Association, High School Commercial Teachers Association of New Jersey, Inland Empire Commercial Teachers Association, and New England High School Commercial Teachers' Association.

The officers of the council are Paul S. Lomax, of New York University, president; Ray Abrams, of the Samuel J. Peters Boys High School of Commerce, New Orleans, vice president; Helen Reynolds, of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, secretary; and Albert E. Bullock, of Los Angeles, treasurer. The council will have a number of standing committees.

Much less is said of the program of the council than of its purpose and plan. It is probably too early in the life of the organization to expect a great deal on this phase. However, the present large place and many undeveloped possibilities of business education in the schools give ample scope for activities of investigative and deliberative nature. We trust that the council will erect its program on a much more substantial foundation than uncircumspect surmises like those to be found in the following excerpt from its booklet.

Apparently the chief reason why business education was not represented in the recently completed three-year National Survey of Secondary Education, undertaken by the United States Office of Education at a cost of \$225,000, was the fact that no central and thoroughly representative council of business education existed at the time that plans for the national survey were being made. Such councils did exist for English, social studies, mathematics, and foreign languages, and special monographs in these subjects became a part of the survey

report of twenty-eight monographs. No special report on business education in a separate monograph was made, although business education in terms of the number of pupils and teachers involved ranks among the major divisions of American education.

In the first place, the field of business education was generously recognized by the National Survey of Secondary Education, to which reference is made, and it is only ignorance of the scope of the report, more especially of Monographs Numbers 2 and 3 (Office of Education Bulletin Number 17, 1932), that would explain, not excuse, such a misstatement. The reasons for the particular type of recognition given to certain special fields, among them commercial education, are clearly stated on pages 175-76 of the summary monograph (Number 1) of the National Survey report. We quote the brief statement in full.

Certain subjects and subject groups are not represented in the seven remaining sections of the chapter. These are physical education and the practical arts, namely, industrial arts, agriculture, home economics, and the commercial subjects. Such study as had been made of the first of these, physical education, is summarized in chapter xxiv of this monograph. In the present stage of development in the field, it seemed desirable to give more attention to the administrative relationships of physical education to other elements of the complete health program and not to stress, as much as has been done for the subject groups in this chapter, the matters of content of courses in physical training, methods of instruction in the field, and the like.

A partially analogous purpose explains the omission of separate monographs dealing with industrial arts, agriculture, home economics, and commercial subjects from this series dealing with subjects of study. It seemed to those responsible for the whole survey that such a study as was made of these special fields in their present state of development should inquire into their place in the programs of general, comprehensive, and specialized secondary schools, as well as in continuation and evening schools (see Monographs Numbers 2 and 3). The problem of the horizontal organization and articulation of general and specialized education involving the recognition of these subject groups seemed more timely than a mere analysis of their content and methods. Moreover, resources were not at hand for both this study of the place of these important subjects in the internal organization of schools and the analysis of courses. It may be of interest to some readers to be informed that a report of expenditures on the National Survey would show a much greater outlay for the investigation of these groups of subjects in the way that has been done than was made for all the subject groups represented in the summaries of the current chapter.

In point of fact, the report of expenditures shows approximately \$35,000 spent on the projects centering around industrial arts, home

economics, and commercial subjects, whereas hardly a fourth as much was spent on all the other subjects combined. If anything, representatives of the subjects recognized in separate monographs would have ground for complaint that their fields had been neglected in comparison with the fields of the practical arts.

In the second place, the surmises in the council's announcement are in error in that the existence of national organizations had nothing whatever to do with the recognition of subject fields in separate monographs. The plans for these portions of the survey had all been blocked out before any proposals were made by its officers of direction for co-operation with national organizations in subject fields. Besides, co-operative arrangements were proposed and undertaken in only two subject fields, English and the social studies. In these two fields the national organizations had already initiated country-wide investigations, which overlapped the plans of the National Survey. Co-operative relationships were effected in order to avoid the waste of duplicate efforts in the same areas.

#### A HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM OF THE FIFTIES

A recent issue of *Pittsburgh Schools*, organ of the Board of Public Education in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, reproduces the "course of study" in operation in Central High School of that city in 1856. In point of fact, two "courses" (curriculums) are reproduced, one of two years and the other of four years, the pupil having been required to elect one. The four-year curriculum follows. Readers will find in it food for reflection.

##### FIRST YEAR

First Term	Number of Lessons per Week	Second Term	Number of Lessons per Week
Arithmetic.....	4	Algebra.....	4
Algebra.....	..	Latin, grammar exercises and reader (or substitute French or German).....	4
Chemistry.....	2	Constitution of Pennsylvania... ..	1
Constitution of the U.S.....	2	General history.....	1
Latin lessons (or substitute French or German).....	4	Ancient geography.....	3
Bookkeeping.....	2	Chemistry.....	2
General history.....	2	Bookkeeping.....	2
Composition and declamation..	1	Vocal music.....	1
Writing.....	1	Writing.....	1
Vocal music.....	1	Composition and declamation..	1
Drawing.....	1	Drawing.....	1

## SECOND YEAR

First Term	Number of Lessons per Week	Second Term	Number of Lessons per Week
Anatomy and physiology.....	3	Zoölogy.....	2
Mental philosophy.....	3	Mental philosophy.....	3
History of France.....	1	History—France and England..	1
Latin, grammar and Caesar (or substitute French or German)	4	Latin, Virgil.....	4
Greek, first lessons (or sub- stitute French or German)...	4	Greek, grammar and reader (or substitute French or German)	4
Geometry.....	4	Geometry and trigonometry....	4
Drawing.....	1	Uranography.....	2
Vocal music.....	1	Drawing.....	1
Writing.....	1	Vocal music.....	1
Composition and declamation..	1	Writing.....	1
		Composition and declamation..	1

## THIRD YEAR

First Term	Number of Lessons per Week	Second Term	Number of Lessons per Week
Moral philosophy.....	3	Moral philosophy.....	3
Natural philosophy.....	3	Natural philosophy.....	3
Chemistry.....	2	Chemistry.....	2
Logic.....	2	Logic.....	2
History of England.....	1	Latin, Cicero, and Greek, Cyro- paedia (or substitute French and German).....	2
Latin, Sallust, and Greek, gram- mar and reader (or substitute French and German).....	3	Analytical geometry.....	2
Analytical geometry.....	3	Surveying.....	1
Surveying.....	1	Botany.....	3
Vocal music.....	1	Writing.....	1
Drawing.....	1	Music.....	1
Writing.....	1	Drawing.....	1
Composition and declamation..	1	Composition and declamation..	1

## FOURTH YEAR

First Term	Number of Lessons per Week	Second Term	Number of Lessons per Week
Butler's Analogy.....	4	Political economy.....	4
Geology and mineralogy.....	2	Geology and mineralogy.....	2
Rhetoric.....	3	Civil engineering.....	5
Latin, Horace, Greek, Homer's Iliad or Odyssey (or substitute French and German).....	2	Latin, Horace, and Greek, Ho- mer (or substitute French and German).....	1
Calculus.....	3	Astronomy.....	2
Astronomy.....	2	Composition and declamation..	1
Music.....	1	Music.....	1
Drawing, mechanical.....	1	Bookkeeping reviewed.....	1
Composition and declamation..	1	Drawing, mechanical.....	1

Numerous observations are at once suggested, most of them from comparisons with present-day programs. One notes that the curriculum is almost fully prescribed, the single alternative being the substitution of French or German for Latin and Greek. The curriculum gives the impression of being overcrowded, there being many subjects in which one or two "lessons" were given each week. It contains an interesting medley of the academic and the "practical," the latter being represented by bookkeeping, surveying, civil engineering, and mechanical drawing. It reflects conditions at a time when instruction in the vernacular had not yet come into its own: besides a period each week throughout the course of "composition and declamation" and the same allotment during three years to "writing," the only recognition of the broad field now designated as "English" was the prescription of three periods of rhetoric in the first term of the fourth year. Among the names of subjects now strange to us are "uranography," "Butler's Analogy," "mental philosophy," and "moral philosophy," the last two being the prototypes, respectively, of psychology and ethics.

Perhaps the most significant observation to be made is that the program lists many subjects to be found in college curriculums of that day, suggesting the inference that the earliest high schools were, in an important sense, competitors of contemporary colleges rather than preparatory institutions. Such a competitive overlapping might easily have existed in the relatively undeveloped state of the school system of the middle of the last century. The inference is supported by the prescription in the two-year curriculum, not reproduced here, of surveying "for gentlemen" and uranography "for ladies." Discussions of the history of American education might well make more of this fact of the similarity of early high-school and college programs.

#### PARK CAMPS FOR UNDER-PRIVILEGED CHILDREN

This section of the September *School Review* carried an item on camping in education, quoting a statement on the significance of camps by Professor Mitchell, of the University of Michigan, and advocating provision and support of camps as parts of school systems of large cities. It seems an interesting coincidence that, at the



time the item was published, authorities in New York City were canvassing the possibilities of utilizing nearby state parks as "day" camps for under-privileged children. Our source of information is the *New York Sun*, which made a report of progress on the proposal in a late summer issue. The plan in contemplation involves co-operation of officials of both schools and parks.

Thousands of under-privileged children who, because of physical or mental infirmities, are now restricted in their activities, may soon be taken to "day" camps located in the various parks of the state, it was learned today.

School officials and park authorities have already begun to work on plans which, they hope, will lead to the establishment of the proposed camps. The idea for the camps grew out of the success of the summer play schools which were conducted this summer in four of the city's parks—Pelham Bay Park, Inwood, Cortlandt Park East and Cortlandt Park West—and which were attended by more than 6,000 children. In conducting the camps, the Board of Education was aided by the Park Department.

Encouraged by the success of this camp school experiment, President George J. Ryan, of the Board of Education, several weeks ago wrote to Park Commissioner Robert Moses, who is also president of the State Council of Parks and chairman of the Long Island State Park Commission, suggesting that camps be established in the state parks for handicapped children, and asking his co-operation.

Commissioner Moses replied that the plan had great merit. He suggested that President Ryan appoint a committee of school officials to confer on the plan with a committee of park officials. The committee named by Dr. Ryan includes Associate Superintendent John S. Roberts, Principal Edward Zabriskie of the Washington Irving High School, Director George H. Chatfield of the Bureau of Attendance, Principal John McNeill of Erasmus Hall High School, and Howard A. Shiebler, secretary to Superintendent of Schools Harold G. Campbell.

The committee representing the parks, appointed by Commissioner Moses and approved by the State Council of Parks, has as its members Major William W. Welch of the Palisades Interstate Park Commission, Paul Winslow of the Taconic Park Commission, and Arthur E. Howland of the Long Island State Park Commission.

The two committees held their first meeting this week at the Northern State Parkway Police Lodge, where the members discussed the project in general terms. Because of the experimental nature of the work, the committees do not expect to draw up definite plans at once but they plan that eventually the camps will be opened for the handicapped children.

It was the consensus of the meeting that it would be necessary, at first, to

use the parks located near New York City. The nearest state parks are Fire Island, in Suffolk county, Bear Mountain State Park, and the Taconic State Park.

#### NEW BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AIDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

A traditional service of the United States Office of Education has been to provide bibliographical help to workers in the schools. A recent innovation is the preparation, by the staff of the Office, of bibliographies published in convenient pamphlet form by the Government Printing Office. The series of pamphlets bears the general caption *Good References*. Several of the bibliographies published to date bear on problems in secondary education. Three such that have recently come to hand relate to the extra-curriculum (Number 19), supervision of instruction and study (Number 20), and transportation of pupils at public expense (Number 24). Copies of the pamphlets may be secured free of cost on application to the United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

#### COGENT EDUCATIONAL DISCUSSION IN THE DAILY PRESS

The *School Review* has from time to time during the depression quoted or otherwise directed attention to discerning discussions of educational problems in the lay press. Far too many of the newspapers of the country have been fearful of taking an emphatic stand on the issue of continued generous support of the schools or have joined in the all-too-frequent unintelligent attack on large expenditures for public education, and it has seemed desirable to indicate to our readers that this indispensable social agency still has its staunch friends in the profession of journalism. Among the newspapers which have been consistently positive in their attitudes toward the schools is the *Christian Science Monitor*. We quote three intelligently sympathetic editorials published in that paper in recent months. The first, which appeared in a summer issue under the heading "Lost Ground in the Schools," epitomizes and comments on the ravages of the depression on public education.

The American public-school system has been going backward so long and so steadily during the depression that recent reports stating that recovery has begun in the schools of some sections have come as most encouraging news. Yet at best it will take considerable time for them to climb out of the slough of

part-time operation, closed schools, oversize classes, lack of teachers, and debts and deterioration.

How far did the schools backslide, and why? How can they get out? Of statistical information about the situation there is no end. Exactly how many schools have been entirely closed no one knows, but Dr. John K. Norton, of Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, estimates that 2,280,000 children have been deprived of all educational opportunities.

School terms were drastically shortened in one out of every four cities, and thousands of rural schools operated on part time. Terms in practically every large city now are one or two months shorter than they were seventy or one hundred years ago. Inadequate school terms for American children stand in sharp contrast to the school terms common for children in European countries. The school plants have been permitted to deteriorate badly for lack of repairs and ordinary replacements.

School expenditures per child enrolled have declined steadily during the last five years from \$90.22 to \$89.06, \$83.28, \$73.25, and in 1933-34 to only \$66.53.

Teachers' salaries have gone down, down. Most persons have a vague idea that teachers' salaries are low. Few know how low they are. Almost no one realizes how low they have gone by comparison with other standards.

Due to lack of funds, schools have been compelled to drop services of long-recognized value in building better citizens.

Of course, there has been much talk about "fads and frills." A "frill" has been defined as something which was not taught when you went to school. How long does it take a so-called "fad" or "frill" to become an accepted service? Clearly, "fad" or "frill" is a misleading label on such services as manual training, music, cooking and sewing, school lunchrooms, vocational education, school libraries, kindergartens, teaching of handicapped children, and many other activities.

If the value of all things is relative, some expensive and extravagant public works in which the community has indulged itself are more faddish than many of the so-called "frills" in the public schools. It is as Alfred E. Smith, former governor of New York, said: "It would not do the state a bit of harm if we did not build another mile of road for three years. . . . I could name dozens of other activities that we could get along without. . . . But one single year that education is neglected can never be brought back."

The second editorial, "Keep the Schools Open," appeared early in September, just as schools were entering a new year.

During September most American schools will reopen. School buildings have been put in order, windows have been washed, and books have been taken out of closets—all in readiness for nine months of "reading, writing, and 'rithmetic." But because of the "pinch of the times" some schools will remain closed.

Town and city governments, seeking to economize, have turned to the edu-

cational field and there have begun to remove, one after another, items of expense until the actual closing of many public schools, and the proposed closing of even more, has become almost a menace.

Particularly at this time, it is deplorable that the educational system should suffer. Now, more than ever before, is there urgent need for an intelligent, well-informed citizenry. Is there any more definite assurance of a bright tomorrow than in the well-educated youth of today? In the proposed limitation of accessible knowledge lies a danger which should not be passed by unheeded.

When officials must readjust budgets, they should ponder long and exhaust every other opportunity for economy before attacking educational appropriations. It is not to be expected that school expenditures will be maintained at previous high levels, but in no event should they be so reduced as to eliminate opportunity for instruction.

The third editorial, published a few days after the second, argues for greater participation by the state in the support of public education.

Miles of statistics and reports have been marshaled to picture the critical plight of American public schools. Though many schools in many states have closed or services have been curtailed, the marvel is that such restriction of educational opportunity has not been even more widespread. It is proof of the stamina and resilience of the public-school system, but there are limits to its endurance.

This year will see the schools in many communities confronting their most serious crisis. The heart of their problem is financial. Financing the public-school system is one of the major challenges of government today.

In a sense there is no such thing as an American public-school system, integrated and administratively unified. More than 150,000 school districts struggle separately to keep their schools going. It is a losing struggle where the depression, pre-depression extravagance, and social changes generally have dried up local tax funds. Remedies for the situation have been sought in countless local surveys.

The most comprehensive and penetrating national study of the problem was that of the American Council on Education, which, with the aid of a grant from the General Education Board, completed an inquiry started by the United States Office of Education but abandoned at the end of a year for lack of government funds. The outstanding remedial recommendation of the survey is: "A fundamental change required today is the transfer of the burden of support of education from local communities to the entire state."

A century ago, it is true, when the battle to transfer the costs of education from individual parents to the whole local community was won and resulted in the system of free public education which is now basic in American life and ideals, the local community was able to bear the burden. Drastic social change,

however—especially that which has taken place during the last twenty-five years—not only has thrown greater responsibility upon public education, but has seen the local community less and less able to bear the cost alone. Wealth has been concentrated in the great urban centers and in the hands of a relatively smaller number of persons. The property tax is overburdened. More use of other forms of taxation is held basic to improvement. State taxes come from many sources. It is recommended that the states set up satisfactory minimum programs of education which can be financed without throwing larger burdens upon any one community than upon any other and that further grouping of small, inadequate school districts be effected.

No state in the Union today equalizes the educational tax burden wholly satisfactorily. None can do so unless it abandons the obsolete principle of throwing the whole tax burden upon local communities.

Every state should take immediate action to stabilize the financing of its public schools and distribute school funds more equitably. This is unfinished business on the educational agenda of the nation which calls for attention *now!* The basis of school support must be broadened if the school system is to survive.

## THE INTEGRATION OF LIBRARY SERVICE WITH THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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The extensive use of library materials in the teaching process is one of the most significant aspects of supervised study in American elementary and secondary schools today.<sup>1</sup> It is my purpose in this article to consider ways in which this use of library materials, this integration of library service with the curriculum, may be successfully effected and the total work of the modern school correspondingly broadened and enriched. Specifically, I shall consider: (1) what effective integration of the library and the curriculum depends on, (2) by what methods it is effected, and (3) certain experiments that are being made through which, it is hoped, a higher degree of integration may be successfully achieved.

### WHAT INTEGRATION DEPENDS ON

In the first place, integration depends fundamentally on the organization and administration of the school. Buildings, equipment, curriculum, teaching staff—all are conceived in accord with a unifying aim, and each part of the entire school is so directed as to contribute to the achievement of that aim. The library, being a part of the school—primarily a central, integrating agency for the school—inevitably is dependent on the general plan for its particular performance.

Integration of the library and the curriculum depends, in the second place, on the understanding and the co-operation of the

<sup>1</sup> a) Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926.

b) A. Laura McGregor, *Supervised Study in English for Junior High School Grades*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921.

c) Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1933 (revised).

principal. Testimony from all sources points conclusively to the fact that it is extremely difficult for the school library to achieve its maximum service, however skilled the librarian and the teachers, unless the principal understands fully how the library is related to the school's program and the part which teacher and librarian, respectively, play in carrying out the program. The allotment of physical space; provision of books, periodicals, and other materials; the competency and the training of the librarian and his assistants; the scheduling of classes in separate study hall and library or in a combination study-hall library; the provision for leisure-time reading and individual study—all these rest ultimately in the hands of the principal. For these reasons, it is tremendously important for the principal to understand how great his responsibility in this respect is. His responsibility is far greater, I frequently fear, than the principal realizes or than he has the opportunity to realize. If he falls short of such realization, his failure is quite understandable and may usually be attributed to two causes: First, departments of education have failed to include in the courses on school administration adequate instruction concerning the importance of library materials and service in effecting the integrated program of the school. Teachers and librarians may be guided to a realization of the importance of the library, but this phase of administration has been, and continues to be, a more-or-less blind spot in the school administrator's course of study. The second cause is that, even in such books as Morrison's *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, every page of which contains library implications, specific reference to library organization and administration is largely lacking. Even though integration is logically and forcefully suggested and teaching procedures are indicated by which librarian and teacher may effect integration, the necessary administrative organization and machinery are not pointed out with equal clarity. I am making no plea for overemphasis on the library per se or for the trained librarian as such; I am urging an understanding by the principal of what library organization and training may have to offer in promoting the work of the school and an acquaintance on his part with the literature concerning the school library written from the librarian's point of view as well as from that of the school man. Each type of literature



supplements the other, and both are necessary. Both should be as obviously and specifically labeled as possible.

In the third place, integration depends on the understanding and the co-operation of the teacher. It is largely through the teacher that materials made available by the library are integrated with the daily work of the school. Just which subjects taught in a school, a high school for example, involve an extensive use of library materials may be open to question. Some courses with a large drill content or laboratory accompaniment may make slight demands on library materials. Mathematics, work in the shop, a part of the work in science possibly fall within this group. Even here, however, the single textbook does not completely suffice; wide reading for orientation and illustration are also required. The teacher who secures extensive participation by his students in the socialized recitation or a high degree of effectiveness in the completion of special units or projects in the study program, and genuinely interests them in their work, will see to it that they make extensive use of library materials and will base his teaching technique largely on the school library. He will do so, not because he has any predilection for the library per se, but because he knows that successful teaching is based on interest and that interest springs in many instances from the wide range of illustrative and assimilative materials which the library supplies. Needed materials will be at hand in the classroom, the laboratory, or the central library and will be employed as the occasion demands.

The fourth essential in securing integration is intelligent co-ordination supplied through the librarian. By "librarian" I mean a person, whether trained primarily as a teacher or as a librarian, who has a broadly based general education, who has been grounded in the essential principles of education, who understands the purposes of the curriculum, and who through knowledge of books and materials is able to supplement the work of the principal and the teacher with pupils, individually and collectively. The librarian should understand the total relationships of the various parts of the school, both those concerned with the curriculum and those having to do with the extra-curriculum, and be able to make the library the center of them all. Training in the theory and the practice of library organ-

ization and administration, which acquaints the librarian with principles and methods of procedure in effecting essential unity in the multiplicity of school relationships, as contrasted with experience gained on the job, proves invaluable at this point. It lifts the librarian out of the class of school administrators who have been styled "administrators of emergencies" and enables him, when confronted with problems of co-operation or integration, to formulate procedures for the solution of the problems which are dictated by correct principles of administration. The librarian's point of view, like that of the principal, should be school-wide, rather than departmental. If the librarian is to fill his position effectively, his training should be planned accordingly.

#### HOW INTEGRATION IS EFFECTED

The successful use of library materials in the program of studies may be effected in a variety of ways. Chief among these, as indicated by library standards, score cards, and various books and articles on the school library, is teaching the use of the library through a series of lessons running throughout the entire period of the school. Such instruction can be given effectively as a separate course by the school librarian, by the librarian of the public library, or by teachers of English or the social sciences. Numerous books and manuals devoted to teaching the use of the library are available. The greatest obstacle, however, to the effective presentation of this unit, is lack of time in the school schedule. B. Lamar Johnson, in his study of secondary-school libraries, found that such instruction was not so generally practiced as recommended, and for the reason indicated.<sup>1</sup> Librarians and teachers who have had occasion to teach pupils how to use library materials know how indispensable this instruction is if all pupils in a school are to become familiar with a wide variety of reference books as sources of information for constant use.

Teaching the use of materials through co-operation with the teacher by means of assignments in specific subjects is a second highly successful means of effecting integration. This procedure involves the use of materials in individual courses and subjects and

<sup>1</sup> B. Lamar Johnson, *The Secondary-School Library*, p. 43. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 17. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

is elaborated in detail in many of the well-known books on various aspects of supervised study. One of the most interesting statements concerning this method is that of Alice R. Brooks, presented in *School Library Yearbook, Number Five*.<sup>1</sup> This article describes the results of an attempt to teach the use of the library through the daily assignments in the social studies. The results, in that they grew out of actual situations, were altogether satisfactory so far as they went, but they fell short of including the whole range of library tools and materials which were essential in other courses. Wherever this method of teaching is depended on, all courses must be taught in this way if pupils are to secure a knowledge of how all the library tools and materials are to be used, and even then some co-ordinating instruction given by the librarian is necessary if a high degree of unity in the course is to be secured.

A third and most important method of securing integration is that of providing an abundance of materials for free or leisure reading. Not only may reading rate and comprehension be increased in this way, but knowledge gained through the free reading of fiction, or stories of adventure, or books of travel, or biographies, or works of literature and science leads to a better understanding of materials useful in instruction and in many instances furnishes the interest and factual information essential to successful class work.

Integration may also be effected in many other ways. The librarian may assist individual pupils or groups of pupils in dealing with library problems. He may induce them to become members of book clubs or train them for positions in the library as pupil assistants. He may see that the library participates in assembly programs, dramatic performances, and extra-curriculum activities in general. The librarian's greatest contribution to the integrating process may result from his contacts with principal and individual teachers and his participation in the staff meetings of the school. The list of effective methods of integration might easily be extended, since countless librarians and teachers employ these and other means daily. It is sufficient merely to mention these few and to pass on to a considera-

<sup>1</sup> Alice R. Brooks, "The Integration of Library Instruction with the High-School Social Studies," *School Library Yearbook, Number Five*, pp. 121-44. Chicago: American Library Association, 1932.

tion of some of the experiments which are being carried out today, not only at the various school levels, but at the junior-college, college, university, and adult-education levels, to discover effective measures of enriching the modern educational program through the use of the library.

#### EXPERIMENTS IN INTEGRATION

The report by Miss Brooks already referred to is based on an experiment worthy of special notice because the study of the social sciences is receiving unusual consideration today and means of enriching the subject through the library are correspondingly important. The reason given for making the experiment is stated by Miss Brooks as follows:

Library instruction is given at present in the majority of cases as a separate series of lessons or as lessons correlated with certain subjects of the curriculum. But to teach the use of the library as a separate course or through correlation, having library instruction as an end in itself, is to attempt to teach by means of artificially created situations. The pupils fail to absorb the practical value of material learned in this manner and miss the opportunities of applying it to the work of their other courses. Since the trend of present-day education is to "learn by doing" in answer to "a felt need," this study suggests the possibility of a close integration of library instruction with the various courses, to be given whenever and wherever the problems or activities of a course require it.<sup>1</sup>

At Cleveland in February, 1934, at a meeting of high-school inspectors and principals held in connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, G. H. Reavis, of the Ohio State Department of Education, gave informally a graphic description of the way in which he determines the effectiveness of the performance of a high school. Naturally, he discusses the organization of the school with the principal. He looks over the plant and goes through the usual routine procedures. He makes it a point to see all the teachers who have recently been added to the staff, those who normally are not far from retirement, and those concerning whom he has any occasion to make special inquiry. In order to ascertain the real effectiveness of the school, he uses the library as a barometer. He discovers through the pupils and the librarian which teachers base their work most effectively on the library. He finds this test

<sup>1</sup> Alice R. Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

one of the most satisfactory he can apply in getting at a real understanding of the character of the work of the school.

At Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, a junior college, President Wood is frankly attempting to determine whether complete integration of library materials and instruction can be achieved through the reorganization of the program of studies. B. Lamar Johnson fills the double position of librarian and dean of instruction. As dean, he is concerned with the formulation of the curriculum and the techniques followed in instruction. He maintains contacts with faculty members, discusses books with them, sees that new books are available for their use, and supports such plans as they may develop which involve the use of books in teaching. As librarian, he is concerned with the instruction of the students in the use of the library and particularly with the stimulation of reading. Classroom libraries, current magazines in dormitory parlors, and dormitory libraries are so distributed over the campus that they can be reached easily. Teachers take classes to the library for instruction in the use of materials, the librarian gives courses in library orientation, students are urged to suggest new books for purchase, and every incentive is made to encourage reading. Students whose rate of reading is slow are organized in silent-reading groups, and an attempt is made to improve their power of comprehension as well. This experiment is now two years old, and the results are being watched with keen interest by college teachers and students of reading at advanced levels.

The New Plan for Freshmen and Sophomores, adopted in 1930 at the University of Chicago, rests squarely on the idea that individual reading, with appropriate guidance through lectures, syllabi, and skilled advisers, provides the surest basis for genuine education. In the autumn of 1933 the idea was extended down into the last two years of the University High School, and with the beginning of the autumn quarter, 1934, it is proposed to reduce the period of formal class instruction in many of the upper classes—composed of Juniors and Seniors in the Divisions and the professional schools—from eleven or twelve weeks to eight weeks, the last three or four weeks of each quarter being left largely free for reading, for consultation with instructors, and for the preparation of reports. Examinations may or may not be given within the last week of the period, depending on

the decision of the instructor. For Freshmen and Sophomores enrolled in what are known as the four general courses in the Humanities, the Social Sciences, the Biological Sciences, and the Physical Sciences, and for many other courses pursued during the first two years, extensive syllabi with required and optional readings are provided. For the general courses a special library has been developed with offices for professors (advisers) surrounding the reading rooms. A library containing many of the same books, particularly the optional works suggested, is provided in one of the large dormitories for men. In the first calendar year in which examinations were offered in the courses (June, 1932, to June, 1933, inclusive) 131 students took examinations after having attended corresponding courses only two of the three quarters, 62 after attending only one quarter, and 78 without attending at all. When numerical values were assigned to the marks made by these students ( $A=4$ ,  $B=3$ ,  $C=2$ ,  $D=1$ , and  $F=0$ , with  $D$  or  $1$  representing a passing mark), the average of these 271 students was found to be 2.31, while the average of all students taking the examinations was 1.90. The percentage distribution, according to their marks, of the 271 students who took examinations before completing the customary three quarters of the course was:  $A$ , 14 per cent;  $B$ , 30 per cent;  $C$ , 36 per cent;  $D$ , 12 per cent; and  $F$ , 8 per cent. The distribution of the entire group taking the examinations was:  $A$ , 9 per cent;  $B$ , 18 per cent;  $C$ , 41 per cent;  $D$ , 18 per cent; and  $F$ , 14 per cent.<sup>1</sup>

Integration in the colleges of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is being sought through new standards for college libraries. These standards have been in the process of revision for three years and have been worked out on a qualitative rather than a quantitative basis. They attempt to disclose the effectiveness of the work of the colleges instead of indicating the amounts of their endowments and other data of that kind. The results of their first application, so far as the effectiveness of library service is concerned, are being studied by Professor Douglas Waples and some of the students of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. A number of colleges which have filled out re-

<sup>1</sup> C. S. Boucher, "Phi Beta Kappa Prospects at Chicago under the New Plan," *University of Chicago Magazine*, XXVI (June, 1934), 275-78.

turns have been asked: (1) to describe the method used in allocating book funds to the various departments; (2) to list methods used to increase student use of the library; (3) to list loans to members of the faculty, indicating particularly titles which are professional and either related to the respective fields of the individual instructors or to the problems of college teaching; (4) to give the total number of titles purchased and the expenditure for books in each of the past five years; (5) to list any library problems being studied by the library staff or other student-reading problems being studied by others by means of library data; and (6) to furnish data indicating use made of the library during the year, including gross circulation of reserves and other books and studies of student use based on individual reader records. From the answers to these questions the reviewing body can see what use is made of the library by each member of the faculty and can review the total reading record of each student by author, title, and classification. When such data on student use are accompanied by college-aptitude scores and the marks of students, a definite picture of integration can be secured, and the part which the library plays in the college can be indicated.

Questions concerning the school library are being raised on every hand. They relate not only to integration but to many other matters. Librarians and school men are familiar with them. If these questions are to be answered properly, teachers and librarians alike will have to answer them as other questions relating to elementary and secondary education have been answered in America during the past thirty years—by careful, detailed scientific study. School librarians and principals may well consider what their part in such study will be. They may well ponder the suggestions made by Professor Charles H. Judd in an article on "New Standards for Secondary Schools." In this article he suggests a method of determining whether a school is really alive to the requirements made of it by society. He proposes three standards by which to determine the school's alertness:

(1) From the principal of each secondary school applying for approval [shall be] required a report indicating some particular in which experimental modification has been undertaken during the past year in the curriculum, class organization, methods of dealing with the public or pupils, or in some other phase of



school work. . . . (2) [The principal must] report six cases in which pupils showing signs of maladjustment in their courses or in their general social relations were fully readjusted through special attention given them by the school staff. Describe the way in which these cases were discovered, the way in which they were treated, and present the evidence that the treatment was successful. . . . (3) The principal of the school shall cause to be transmitted to the inspector one or more statements from committees of the faculty with regard to plans which they have matured during the year for the cultivation in the pupils of the school habits of reading or independent effort wholly outside the assignments of any course. Lists of books read or of constructive activities undertaken or of excursions organized and carried to successful completion should be submitted as a part of each statement.<sup>1</sup>

In so far as successful integration of the library with the curriculum depends on teachers and librarians, this statement of standards is a challenge which may well receive thoughtful consideration. Today it is almost certain that not less than 60 per cent of the population of high-school age is enrolled in American high schools. The American population is becoming more and more an adult population. Leisure is here, and there will be still more leisure. The function of the library, in school and out, is to assist these Americans of tomorrow to a greater knowledge of the world about them, to a happier participation in the work in which they will be engaged, and to a more creative use of the leisure which will be theirs. If I am not mistaken, the library cannot perform this function properly unless it receives more adequate support, unless its importance is better understood by the school and the public, and unless all phases of its activities are subjected to sustained experimentation and investigation.

<sup>1</sup> Charles H. Judd, "New Standards for Secondary Schools," *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 9-11. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 50. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1934.

## THE FREE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL IN THE POST-CIVIL-WAR PERIOD

### II. ECONOMIC AND EDUCATIONAL ARGUMENTS

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#### ECONOMIC ARGUMENTS

The preceding article in this series<sup>1</sup> dealt with the political, social, moral, and religious arguments concerning the wisdom of maintaining free public high schools. In this article we shall present the economic and the educational arguments.

The great expense of maintaining high schools compared with the expense of operating elementary schools was one of the most frequently discussed economic issues. Opponents charged that the high schools were a public extravagance, that the results were not proportionate to the expenditure, that the high salaries of high-school teachers depleted the common-school fund to such an extent that the elementary schools suffered, and that the public could pay tuition in the local academies and buy the necessary textbooks more cheaply than they could maintain the high school. Numerous bodies of statistics were presented showing the high cost per pupil in secondary schools compared with the cost in elementary schools, the expensiveness of high-school buildings and equipment, and the large

<sup>1</sup> B. Jeannette Burrell and R. H. Eckelberry, "The Free Public High School in the Post-Civil-War Period: I. Political, Social, Moral, and Religious Arguments," *School Review*, XLII (October, 1934), 606-14.

See also B. Jeannette Burrell and R. H. Eckelberry, "The High-School Question before the Courts in the Post-Civil-War Period," *School Review*, XLII (April, 1934), 255-65; "The High-School Controversy in the Post-Civil-War Period: Times, Places, and Participants," *School Review*, XLII (May, 1934), 333-45.

salaries of high-school teachers (21: 281, 25, 38, 45, 47, 50, 99: 45-46).<sup>1</sup> It was shown, furthermore, that but a small fraction of the pupils benefited directly from this costly institution. State Commissioner Charles S. Smart of Ohio, for instance, estimated that only 3.5 per cent of the 700,000 pupils in the public schools of Ohio were in high schools, that they were taught by 3 per cent of the teachers who received 10 per cent of all the money paid for salaries (99: 45; see also 38: 77, 96, 98, 109: 770-71).

The friends of the high school replied with sets of figures designed to show the low cost of the public high school and with criticisms of some of the figures of the opponents (54: 206, 79: xxxviii-xliii, 86: 346, 93, 103, 109: 4). Official reports of the time, although showing a somewhat higher ratio of high-school to elementary-school pupils than was admitted by opponents, show that the high schools actually benefited only a small number of children if the numbers in attendance alone are considered. The United States Commissioner of Education in his report for 1886-87 showed that in the whole country thirty-five of one thousand pupils were in the high schools (108). When these figures are interpreted, it must be remembered that school statistics for the period were notoriously incomplete.

Defenders of the high school attempted to demonstrate that, even if the public provision of secondary education appeared expensive, it was the cheapest method of affording this type of training. They cited the experience of different localities to show that the central high school could supply the education needed by the older pupils more cheaply than could the elementary schools (54: lxxxvii, 64: 98, 101, 102). As for the expense of the public high school compared with the expense of private educational agencies, numerous estimates and bodies of statistics were offered to show that the former was more economical (79: xxxviii, 85: 163, 90: 219-20, 97).

An examination of the arguments and data presented by both sides concerning this phase of the controversy indicates clearly that there was a real foundation for the charge of the opponents that, in

<sup>1</sup> The bold-face numbers in parentheses refer to the bibliographies appearing at the end of this article (Numbers 90-109) and at the ends of the articles appearing in the May issue (Numbers 1-60) and in the October issue (Numbers 61-89). The numbers in light type are page numbers.

comparison with the elementary schools, the expenses for teachers and equipment in the high schools were high and that rather few pupils were directly served by them but that, in comparison with the cost of patronizing private schools, the expenses of the public schools were very reasonable.

There were, however, economic issues other than the mere matter of absolute or relative cost. One of these issues was the effect which the general taxation required to support the high school would have on commerce and industry. Certain of the opponents argued that it would discourage industry:

It paralyzes industry, drives capital to its hiding places, abates self-respect, destroys self-reliance. Men will not work if they are deprived of the fruits of their labors; capital will not come forth and quicken business if, as soon as it shows itself, it is to be taxed to the verge of confiscation [42:14].

A communistic spirit was blamed by some foes as the source of the demand for high schools. Even President Eliot read communism into the demand for generous provision of free schools (12: 719, 100).

Proponents of the high school contended that business and industry profit rather than suffer by the establishment of high schools. Property and person are safer in a community of intelligent citizens who feel fairly treated, while lack of opportunity stimulates a spirit of recklessness and malice. If proper educational opportunities are provided, reductions in taxes for police, prisons, and charitable institutions will more than offset educational expenditures. Moreover, industry profits by having more skilful laborers and by the stimulation of invention and improvements which result from a group of educated employees. The future rivalry of nations will depend chiefly on inventions and technical skill (54: lxxxii and 148, 64: 93-116, 69, 90: 89-91, 95).

The disputants disagreed, not only concerning the effect of the tax-supported high school on business and industry, but also concerning its economic effect on the laboring classes. Opponents asserted that the high schools were cultivating the notion that hard labor is degrading and hence tending to produce a shortage of manual laborers and an oversupply of clerical and professional workers.

If the masses learn habits of work early in life, they will not be tempted by a little education to try to rise to some other type of work but will settle into a life of patient, persevering labor. Persons going into business after completing the elementary school are just as successful as those who graduate from high school (21: 283, 37: 334-37, 60, 99: 44).

Friends of the high school claimed that extra-school conditions, such as the influence of ignorant laborers, the rapid industrial development of the country, and the lure of our free political life, were largely responsible for the tendency to despise manual labor. They insisted that distaste for manual work is not dislike of the labor itself but dislike of the conditions associated with it, such as that of ignorant fellow-workers. Manual labor can be dignified by making skill and intelligence requisite to it (66, 91, 106: cxvii). They also presented statistics to show that high-school graduates are industrious and that they engage in productive types of work (79: xxxviii, 80, 81: 29-43, 92). However, the common laboring class formed only a small proportion of the workers listed in any of the compilations of high-school graduates which the writers have seen.

The defenders of the high school contended that the work of educated persons is of more value than that of uneducated persons; that business and industry had reached a stage when a common-school education was no longer adequate preparation for merchants, engineers, farmers, and those in supervisory positions in industry; and that each state should educate its skilled laborers and supervisors, rather than import them from other states or countries (64: 113, 70, 105).

#### EDUCATIONAL ARGUMENTS

We turn now to the discussions pro and con of the influence of the high school within the school system. One point at issue was the suitability of the program of studies. Objections to it were many and were based on conflicting assumptions. Some of these objections—poor moral training and the incompleteness due to the lack of proper religious instruction—have already been indicated.

One group of opponents objected to the stress on college-preparatory subjects, which would be useful to only a fraction of the pupils.

Many persons who were friendly to the high school urged the need of better provision for pupils who could not afford to stay for the full high-school course or did not intend to go to college (38, 64: 106, 106: cxx). Representatives of the colleges, on the other hand, found fault with this very preparatory work which the high schools were said to be overemphasizing. They charged the high-school graduates with a superficial and defective knowledge of necessary subjects compared with that of private-school graduates. Others complained that the public schools kept the pupils too long, trying to usurp the place of the college (9: 493, 15: 19-20, 38: 75, 50).

It was claimed that the character of the high-school student body renders first-class work impossible. The pupils of the public schools are a miscellaneous assemblage of many different interests and abilities; many are incapable students who have been tempted by free tuition to continue their education and who waste the time of themselves and their classmates. In a private school pupils attend for a definite purpose, and the resulting unity of aim permeating the atmosphere improves the quantity and the quality of the work (12).

Some argued that the effect of the high school on the lower grades is harmful. The high school not only robs the elementary schools of funds which they need, but it also disparages the rudimentary instruction by placing it in the position of being merely preparatory to the high school. It would be much better to plan elementary instruction as a fundamental unit; consideration should be given to the length of time that the average child can stay in school and an endeavor made to fit him in that time for practical duties rather than for high school or college (38: 76).

Various advantages which the high school cannot equal were attributed to private secondary schools. These included: flexibility of organization and program of studies; the provision or supervision of living arrangements by the school compared with conditions at a central high school, which is often distant from the homes of many pupils and at the same time lacks boarding arrangements; and trustees who are interested in their duties rather than politically chosen school-board members (38: 73, 48).

So much for the educational arguments of the opponents. In reply the defenders of the high school advanced a wide variety of argu-

ments. They denied that the course of study was superficial and claimed that the better high schools, at least, were furnishing adequately prepared students for higher institutions. They claimed that the college administrations had unfairly chosen the best-endowed schools for comparison with the average high school and that in many instances high schools surpassed academies or forced them to raise their standards. They pointed out that many students reported as alumni of private schools had gained their fundamental training in the high school and merely "finished" in the private institution (22: 110, 104). Where state universities were maintained, the high school seemed to be a natural part of the state school system, as Justice Cooley pointed out in his famous decision.

The accommodation of pupils from many different social ranks and of differing mental development was urged as a highly valuable service of secondary education. This condition means that the wealthy, who pay heavy taxes to support the schools, are assured that their children can receive in them a thorough education. The schools profit by the interest in them of the well-to-do and influential classes, without which the whole public-school system suffers. Moreover, the fact that an educational system free to all encourages pupils to continue longer than if great expense were involved or if they were selected by rigid tests of ability is a merit and not a defect. Those whose minds are late in maturing still have a chance for development in the advanced school, while they would be regarded as unfit for intellectual endeavor if judged by their elementary-school records. The slower children ought not to be a serious handicap to the more capable pupils, whose capability, if really of much worth, should enable them to rise above circumstances (76: 28).

Proponents of the high schools pointed out that these schools are a great benefit to many who never enter them. There must be educated residents to keep alive interest in schools and to point out the possibilities of thorough education. The requirement of high schools by state authority raises the general level of education, since people will come to accept high schools as institutions providing the degree of learning desirable for citizens. A higher grade of educational institution always influences beneficially those schools below it by means of the spirit of respect for education which emanates from it. In-



struction becomes more thorough when it is a basis for further education and when pupils must be prepared for the entrance examinations of the high school than when it is tested by the less definite problems of extra-school life. The pupils are spurred on by hope of entering on a new variety of studies, a motive which improves the regularity of attendance and the quality of their work. Teaching also grows better, since the removal of the older pupils results in less crowded elementary schools and allows methods adapted to younger pupils to be used (64: 116, 69: 280).

The most beneficial influence on the elementary schools claimed for the high school was the supply of teachers provided for the lower schools. If it is the duty of the state to establish schools, it is also the state's duty to furnish good teachers to conduct them, but a teacher who has only that same narrow elementary education which he is trying to pass on to his pupils perpetuates the faults of his training. While the high school may not be able to furnish professionally trained teachers, "it does give us teachers whose views have been broadened and love of knowledge deepened by some taste of a liberal culture" (94; see also 64: 99, 87). Statistics were marshaled to prove that high schools actually were supplying teachers for the elementary schools (55: 112, 79: lxii, 107).

#### GEOGRAPHICAL, SOCIAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THESE ARGUMENTS

No relation between geographical location and the type of argument advanced could be discovered. It might be supposed that the effect of education on industry and the laboring classes would have been of particular interest in the eastern cities or that the democratic significance of the high school would have been of special concern in the West, but our data indicate that all the major arguments were utilized in every section where the high-school question was a matter of serious concern. This fact doubtless reflects the tendency of human beings to marshal all the arguments they can think of on behalf of anything in which they believe, although the belief may in fact have arisen from comparatively simple or selfish considerations. For the same reason, doubtless, no definite relation appears between the different lines of argument and the social groups utilizing them.

On the whole, as might be expected, the friends of the high school placed more stress on intellectual and social values, while the foes tended to stress the more "practical" outcomes, particularly the economic. The pleas for a type of moral and religious instruction which the high school could not give and praise for the virtues of private schools came, as might be expected, largely from religious leaders and representatives of private schools.

The chronological distribution is by no means clear cut. All the arguments were used to some extent throughout the period, and a few reliable ones were used rather frequently throughout. The greater part of the discussion concerning the cost of high schools seems to have occurred between 1875 and 1880, and the effect on the laboring classes of extensive education was most seriously discussed during the ten years beginning in 1876 or 1877. In both these cases the evidence agrees with reasonable expectations, since the depression covered the years 1873-78, while the gathering strength of the trade unions and the opposition to them date from the late seventies. Opposition from those interested in academies and private schools and discussion of the problem of religious and moral instruction were prominent from about 1884 or 1885. This line of argument may have represented a final desperate mustering of forces by private-school and religious interests against the increasingly powerful public institution.

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## MEASURING PROGRESS IN WORKING SKILLS IN NINTH-GRADE CIVICS

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One of the major responsibilities of the secondary school is to train pupils how to study. This task is an outstanding challenge to educators today because of the complexity of the problem and because of the innumerable researches still needed in the field of study. A practical approach to the solution of the problem lies in the teaching of study procedures. This article gives a summary of an investigation carried out to measure the progress of ninth-grade pupils in the use of certain working skills in the study of the social sciences resulting from definite, detailed practice in the use of the procedures applied in a course in American government. The specific working skills studied are: (1) becoming informed about a new book, (2) use of general reference books, (3) reading a newspaper, (4) interpretation of a diagram or chart, (5) interpretation of a picture graph, (6) interpretation of a table of statistics, (7) summarizing, and (8) outlining.

### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE EXPERIMENT

*Experimental organization.*—The experiment was carried on in the junior high-school at Glen Ellyn, Illinois, during the semester beginning January 25, 1932. Forty-two selected ninth-grade pupils were placed in an experimental group and a like number in a control group. The investigation covered a period of eighteen weeks (exclusive of preliminary testing), three practice periods of six weeks each. The classes met five times a week for a period of fifty minutes, and a fifty-minute study period followed each recitation.

The experimental group was given one lesson during each of the three six-week practice periods on each of the eight working skills being investigated. The lessons on each skill in each period of practice were, in a general way, equal in the amount of practice required,

for one skill was planned to parallel concisely each of the others and the amount of time spent in the study of each was approximately the same. An attempt was also made to have the total amount of practice in each investigation period equal to that of each of the others by the use of lessons which required about the same effort and attention for each skill; that is, during the second and the third practice periods a pupil would receive as much training in outlining, summarizing, etc., as he did in the first practice period. The control group was not given any instruction in study; each pupil was left to study in his usual trial-and-error manner. The only variable present in the instruction of the two groups was the practice given the experimental group on certain working skills in the content of the course in American government; the control group spent the whole amount of time on the regular requirements of the course.

*Measurement of progress in the use of the working skills.*—It was necessary to formulate a technique for measuring pupil progress in the use of the working skills. A pretest to determine the achievement in working skills was administered at the beginning of the experiment. At the end of each of the three practice periods, the same working-skill test was again administered for the purpose of securing a measure of the progress resulting from the directed instruction and practice in the use of the skills during that particular practice period. The test used, the Working Skill Test in Social Science Materials by Alice Gibbons, is composed of eight parts, one division for each of the skills investigated in this experiment.

At the beginning of the experiment data were secured to aid in the interpretation of the results of the experiment. The chronological ages of the pupils were obtained, and their intelligence was measured by the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, Advanced Examination, Form A. This information, together with the pretest score for each pupil, provided the basis for the interpretation of the progress of the pupils in the use of the working skills.

*Integration of instruction in the use of the working skills and in American government.*—The units of understanding and their elements in the required course in American government were the same as those customarily used in the course given in civics in the ninth grade. Two units were covered during each of the three six-

week practice periods of the experiment. The experimental group spent less time on the regular activities because of the instruction given in the use of the working skills, but the control group spent its entire time on the course units here listed: Unit I, Development of Our Government; Unit II, Legislating; Unit III, Administration of Government; Unit IV, Protection through the Courts; Unit V, Meeting the Cost of Government; Unit VI, The People's Participation in Government.

The lessons used in the experiment to give practice in the use of the specific working skills being investigated were integrated with the course in American government. For Units I and II there was a lesson involving each of the eight working skills. Likewise, there was a parallel series of lessons for Units III and IV and for Units V and VI. Since the lesson on becoming informed about a new book was the first skill treated, the materials for it were selected from the subject matter needed in the first part of Units I, III, and V, respectively. Since the lesson in outlining came last, the subject matter used in it came from that required in teaching Units II, IV, and VI, respectively, as needed in each successive practice period. The subject matter in American government that could be studied most effectively by the use of a particular working skill was used in the instruction on that skill.

When each skill was taken up, the pupils were supplied with a statement of the objectives of the skill; the value of the skill was called to their attention in a presentation by the instructor; and a guide sheet furnished a body of information which was essential to effective use of the working skill. During each practice period a work sheet was given out, the completion of which required the use of the information supplied on the guide sheet. An accompanying statement of a set of standards of attainment served to stimulate the pupils to fix in mind skills which together led to mechanical mastery of the original skill. Later a test was administered to determine the degree of mastery of the working skill. The scope of each lesson for each skill was much broader than that of the test used to measure progress in the use of the working skill. In every case, however, the knowledge and the skills required in the test were included in the lessons.

## ILLUSTRATIVE DATA FOR SKILL I

## OBJECTIVES FOR SKILL I

A. Realization that a book is a tool and that to use a book intelligently requires that the user know certain facts about it.

B. Skilful use of a book, resulting from an acquaintance with the various parts of a book.

## PRESENTATION FOR SKILL I

A book is a student's tool; it is a means of increasing one's store of knowledge. For the same reason that a machinist must know the parts of his machine and the purpose of each part in order to use it intelligently, a student should understand the various parts of a book and the purpose that each serves. The knowledge of the technique of becoming informed about any new book insures its more effective use with the least waste of time.

Information concerning the customary parts of a book and their uses is found on the guide sheet, the parts being listed in the order of their occurrence in an ordinary book. Enough description of each part is given to (1) locate it in a book, (2) show the nature of the information found in that particular part, (3) indicate the value of it in judging the worth of the contents of the book as a whole, and (4) teach how to use each part in an economical and comprehensive manner. The practice exercises on the work sheet are designed to give you a mastery of this necessary information about a book and skill in the use of this information to the end that your study of American government during this semester will be economical of time and successful in attainments.

## GUIDE SHEET FOR SKILL I

A. *Title-page*: Full title—valuable for giving a notion of the subject treated, both the point of view of the work and a clue to the manner of treatment. Author's name—significant if supplemented by some information as to his standing as a scholar and an author, such as a list of books he has written in the same field, the position he holds, and his membership in learned societies. (When other persons besides the author help make a book, their names appear on the title-page as editors, compilers, translators, or illustrators.) Edition, if other than the first—indicative of the up-to-dateness of the material. (When a publisher first prints a book, all copies then printed are called the first edition. If it is reprinted later with changes or corrections, it is called a revised edition, an enlarged edition, or a second or third edition.) Place of publication—betrayal of the nationality of the author. Publisher's name—valuable assurance of correct printing. Date of publication—useful in that it shows when that particular copy of the book was printed.

[The rest of the guide sheet is similar to this section.]

## WORK SHEET FOR SKILL I

A. What is the full title of your textbook?

B. Who is the author of the book?



- C. Is the author an authority on the subject of government?
  - D. Give one proof of your answer to Question C.
  - E. Where was the book published?
  - F. Who was the publisher?
  - G. When was this issue of the book printed?
  - H. From what edition of the work is this copy of the book?
  - I. Which of the following is not found on the title-page?
 

1. Full title	4. Place of publication
2. Author's name	5. Publisher's name
3. Date of printing	6. Edition
  - J. Give the copyright date of the book.
- [This quotation comprises only about a fourth of the work sheet.]

## STANDARDS OF ATTAINMENT FOR SKILL I

- A. Know the parts of a book and where each is found.
- B. Know the six facts about a book given on a title-page and realize how significant each is in showing the reader the importance of the book.
- C. Be able to use the copyright date in judging a book on a subject in which the information changes rapidly.
- D. Understand the difference in the information found in the preface, the table of contents, and the introduction of a book and the value of each in determining further use of the book.
- E. Have ability in using the table of contents and the index to find information in a book, knowing the difference in their arrangement, purpose, and content.
- F. Know the type of assistance supplied the reader by the list of illustrations, the bibliography, and the appendix of a book.
- G. Be able to use the "text" of the book effectively—the reading material, abbreviations, footnotes, etc.

## TEST FOR SKILL I

You are examining a new book for the first time. With more or less consciousness you are aware of its color, size, and shape. You decide that you want to know more about it. Do you know how to find out the following things about your book? Write the answers to the following questions in the blank spaces provided, using a single word wherever possible.

- A. In what part of the book will you find the title-page? .....
- B. What three things besides the title will the title-page tell you? .....
- C. If there is an index, where will you usually find it? .....
- D. In what arrangement will you find the items of the index? .....
- E. Where will the table of contents be found? .....
- F. If you want to find whether a detail of some subject is discussed in the book, what will you use to find it? .....

G. If you wish to know the chapter divisions of a book, where will you find them? .....

H. What is the meaning of each of the following signs or abbreviations that you may find in the text or the footnotes of your book? pp. ...., i.e. ...., ¶ ..... , ff. ...., cf. ...., *ibid.* .....

#### ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

*Pretesting results.*—The pretesting program previously described furnished data basic for the interpretation of the results of this investigation. Chronological age, intelligence, and ability to use the working skills of the social sciences upon entrance to the ninth grade were the characteristics considered in equating the experimental group and the control group. A comparison of the two groups at the beginning of the experiment is shown in Table I. The control group

TABLE I  
COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS  
AT BEGINNING OF EXPERIMENT

	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Age in months:				
Experimental group.....	164.10	166.67	8.36	151-192
Control group.....	163.13	164.52	7.56	151-187
Intelligence quotient:				
Experimental group.....	118.00	115.26	9.35	95-129
Control group.....	117.00	115.95	7.56	91-130
Score on test of ability to use working skills:				
Experimental group.....	59.50	59.67	12.45	39-86
Control group.....	60.33	59.90	12.77	31-86

was slightly the more favored on the basis of chronological age. The median age of the control group was .97 of a month less than the median age of the experimental group, and the mean age of the control group was 2.15 months less than that of the experimental group. The classes were nearly equal in intelligence, the mean intelligence quotient of the control group being only .69 greater than the similar mean of the experimental group. Again, the two groups were almost equally matched on the basis of ability to use the working skills of the social sciences. The median for the control group was .83 greater than the median for the experimental group,

while the mean of the control group was only .23 greater than that of the experimental group. The standard deviations of the three characteristics show that, although the two groups were about equal in homogeneity in the use of the working skills at the beginning of the experiment, both groups were more heterogeneous in the use of the skills than they were in chronological age and in intelligence.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ACCORDING TO SCORES MADE ON FOUR TESTS OF ABILITY IN USE OF WORKING SKILLS IN SOCIAL-SCIENCE MATERIALS

SCORE	NUMBER OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP				NUMBER OF CONTROL GROUP			
	Test I (Pre- test)	Test II	Test III	Test IV	Test I (Pre- test)	Test II	Test III	Test IV
96-100.....	0	0	2	10	0	0	0	0
91-95.....	0	5	8	10	0	0	0	0
86-90.....	1	5	4	10	1	1	0	1
81-85.....	0	3	12	4	1	1	2	3
76-80.....	4	7	4	2	2	4	4	3
71-75.....	4	8	5	3	4	4	8	9
66-70.....	8	4	4	1	7	7	4	3
61-65.....	4	5	1	2	5	5	3	4
56-60.....	1	3	1	0	4	3	4	8
51-55.....	6	1	1	0	9	8	8	5
46-50.....	9	1	0	0	6	6	5	2
41-45.....	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
36-40.....	2	0	0	0	1	2	1	0
31-35.....	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
Mean*.....	59.67	74.88	81.12	87.86	59.90	61.19	61.74	63.76
Standard deviation*..	12.45	11.40	10.30	9.53	12.77	12.86	13.44	12.39

\* Calculated from the ungrouped data.

*Progress in the use of the working skills.*—The data in Table II show that at the beginning of the experiment there were fourteen pupils in the experimental group with scores of 50 or below. In the second application of the test, or at the end of the first six weeks of practice, only one pupil made a score of 50 or less. At the end of twelve weeks of instruction no pupil made a score of less than 51, and in Test IV there was no score below 61. In the control group there were nine pupils with scores of 50 or below in the first three administrations of the test, but on Test IV the number of such scores

decreased to six. These facts show decided improvement by the experimental group in the use of the skills but very little change for the control group. This conclusion is likewise evidenced by the standard deviations of the means of the scores obtained from the four applications of the test, which illustrate an increase in homogeneity in the experimental group. The control group was slightly more heterogeneous than the experimental group at the beginning of the experiment and remained so throughout the eighteen weeks of practice.

*Progress in the use of the working skills during the three practice periods.*—The conclusion that the progress of the experimental group resulted from the instruction given is justified also by the data in Table III. The gain of the control group in each case was so small that it was probably due to trial-and-error learning, familiarity with the test, or guessing the answers. The gain in the average scores of the experimental group in the first practice period was the greatest of the three for that group, being larger than the sum of the gains for the other two periods. The second gain was .50 less than the gain in the third practice period, but this difference is so slight that it is probably insignificant.

#### ANALYSIS OF PROGRESS IN THE USE OF SPECIFIC WORKING SKILLS

An analysis of the progress in the use of the specific working skills is enlightening.

*Improvement in specific skills.*—The scores attained by the two groups in the four tests on the use of each of the eight skills are shown in Table IV. The experimental group on the final test made its highest score in the interpretation of a diagram or chart, its next highest attainment in becoming informed about a new book, and its third highest attainment in outlining. The scores made by this group on the tests in the use of general reference books, in reading newspapers, in interpretation of a picture graph, and in summarizing were nearly equal and ranged from 85.00 to 89.05. The lowest attainment was in the interpretation of a statistical table. The experimental group's score of 69.04 in this skill was remarkably low compared with the attainment of the group in each of the other seven working skills. On Test IV the control group made the highest score

in the interpretation of a diagram or chart and its second highest attainment in the interpretation of a picture graph. At the end of

TABLE III  
AVERAGE SCORES AND GAINS MADE BY EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON FOUR TESTS OF ABILITY IN USE OF WORKING SKILLS IN SOCIAL-SCIENCE MATERIALS

	Test I (Pretest)	Test II	Test III	Test IV
Average score:				
Experimental group.....	59.67	74.88	81.12	87.86
Control group.....	59.90	61.19	61.74	63.76
Difference.....	- 0.23	13.69	19.38	24.10
Gain in average score:				
Experimental group.....		15.21	6.24	6.74
Control group.....		1.29	0.55	2.02
Difference.....		13.92	5.69	4.72

TABLE IV  
SCORES MADE BY EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON TESTS OF SPECIFIC SKILLS IN SOCIAL-SCIENCE MATERIALS

SKILL	SCORE OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP				SCORE OF CONTROL GROUP			
	Test I (Pre-test)	Test II	Test III	Test IV	Test I (Pre-test)	Test II	Test III	Test IV
1. Becoming informed about a new book.....	61.27	75.38	86.93	93.33	65.24	67.94	68.25	70.79
2. Use of general reference books.....	50.88	69.52	79.88	85.00	58.21	58.93	60.36	62.26
3. Reading a newspaper..	68.34	79.50	81.75	86.01	65.48	66.37	66.57	68.06
4. Interpretation of a diagram or chart.....	81.19	89.29	88.81	95.24	82.14	84.05	83.57	85.71
5. Interpretation of a picture graph.....	76.19	77.62	80.95	89.05	74.76	77.14	77.62	80.95
6. Interpretation of a statistical table.....	47.14	55.71	60.48	69.04	53.81	56.19	56.67	57.62
7. Summarizing.....	38.10	50.79	69.84	87.30	38.89	37.30	37.30	38.89
8. Outlining.....	36.67	77.83	82.70	90.32	38.57	40.00	40.95	44.60

the experiment the skill of this group in summarizing and its skill in outlining were low.

A comparison of the difference between the scores on the initial

and the final tests is shown in Table V. The experimental group made the greatest gains in summarizing and in outlining. In the case of each of these two skills, the difference between the gains of the two groups was approximately 50. The experimental group made the least gains in the interpretation of a diagram or chart and in the interpretation of a picture graph.

The control group made the greatest gains in becoming informed about a new book, in the interpretation of a picture graph, and in outlining. Probably, then, it may be concluded that pupils without

TABLE V  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES ON PRETEST AND ON FINAL TEST OF  
ABILITY TO USE SPECIFIC SKILLS IN SOCIAL-  
SCIENCE MATERIALS

SKILL	DIFFERENCE IN SCORES		GAIN OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OVER CONTROL GROUP
	Experimental Group	Control Group	
1. Becoming informed about a new book..	32.06	5.55	26.51
2. Use of general reference books.....	25.12	4.05	21.07
3. Reading a newspaper.....	17.67	2.58	15.09
4. Interpretation of a diagram or chart...	14.05	3.57	10.48
5. Interpretation of a picture graph.....	12.86	6.19	6.67
6. Interpretation of a statistical table....	21.90	3.81	18.09
7. Summarizing.....	49.20	0.00	49.20
8. Outlining.....	53.65	6.03	47.62

instruction increase their ability to use a book, to interpret a picture graph, and to outline more than they do the other skills here investigated. The lack of gain in attainment in summarizing probably indicates that pupils increase not at all in this ability when learning depends on the trial-and-error method.

*Gain of experimental group over control group.*—The gain of the experimental group over the control group is an important index of the improvement resulting from the instruction given the experimental group. This gain was 49.20 in summarizing and 47.62 in outlining. Since summarizing and outlining were the two skills tested which dealt with the organization of subject matter, it is safe to conclude that instruction in organizing subject matter improved that ability to a high degree. The significant gains of the experimen-

tal group over the control group in becoming informed about a new book and in the use of general reference books were the next largest gains. It may be said, then, that directed instruction in the use of books caused the experimental group to become significantly skilful in that ability. Skills 4-6 deal with interpretation. Because the gains for these three skills were small, it seems that pupils improve less in interpretation as a result of practice than they do in the other skills. Because the gain was the smallest in the case of Skill 5, it seems that the interpretation of a picture graph is more difficult than the interpretation of a diagram or chart or the interpretation of a table of statistics. The difference between the gains of the two groups in newspaper-reading was a medium gain compared with the gains of the experimental group over the control group in the use of the other skills.

#### GENERAL SUMMARY

The object of this study was to measure progress in the use of certain working skills in the study of social-science material when practice in the use of these skills was provided. The results are valid only for (1) the type of pupils used in this experiment, (2) situations in which teaching conditions and procedures are similar to those used in this study, (3) working skills of the definition and scope used in this study, and (4) findings substantiated by the statistical evidence. An attempt was made to eliminate all variables in the two groups studied other than the eight special lessons in the use of the specific working skills given during the three practice periods of the experiment. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that the gains evidenced resulted from the directed instruction.

The following are the outstanding conclusions: (1) When entering the ninth grade, pupils possess a rather high ability in the use of the working skills in social-science materials. (2) At the time of their entrance to ninth grade, pupils show a wide range in their abilities to use special study skills. (3) Directed practice tends to reduce the range of pupil differences in the use of working skills. (4) A continual improvement in the use of each skill here studied results from instruction in the skill. (5) In eighteen weeks pupils increase their initial ability in the use of working skills about 50 per cent as a result of directed practice. (6) The amount of progress made in the



first six weeks of special training in study technique is greater than the amount of progress made during the two following periods of the same length. (7) The improvement in outlining, in interpretation of a picture graph, and in the use of a book made by pupils who do not receive training in specific working skills is greater than their improvement in other skills. (8) Pupils receiving instruction in the use of study skills make the greatest improvement in the ability to organize materials and the next greatest gain in the use of books. (9) The fact that the superiority of the gain of the experimental group over that of the control group was small in Skills 4, 5, and 6 indicates that interpretation is a rather difficult study skill to acquire and that more training should be given in it than in some of the other skills. (10) Progress in ability to use the working skills of the social sciences results favorably when the practice is applied to content in a course in American government.

## APPRAISING NEWER PRACTICES IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES<sup>1</sup>

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### INTRODUCTION

For many years controversies, both great and small, have engaged the attention of teachers of the social studies. These controversies—concerned with organization, methods, aims, objectives, and content—have not, it appears, been fruitless, for various experiments have been stimulated and carried on, many of which have caused modifications of teaching practices, as well as changes in the content of social studies in the schools. At the present time it would be unfortunate if experimental efforts were curtailed, since objective-research programs have just begun to appraise the outcomes of the different types of instruction.

The philosophies of two major schools of educational thought have, for the past few decades, affected teaching practices in the schools of the United States. One school of thought, representing the more conventional point of view, has accepted the traditional organization of subject matter in separate courses of study. The content of each course is a logical sequence of topics, usually based on a textbook. In history the sequence is based on the chronological order of events, and special emphasis is placed on accounts of wars, their causes and effects, and the more vivid political events. Major emphasis is attached to intellectual outcomes, such as information and verbal skills. Civic attitudes receive little studied attention except in so far as they are implicit in textbooks<sup>2</sup> or are added to curricular

<sup>1</sup> This article was derived from data now being collected by the Institute of School Experimentation for an extensive appraisal of newer-type versus standard-type public-school practices.

<sup>2</sup> Bessie Louise Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930.

material through pressure by citizens' organizations.<sup>1</sup> The other school of thought, representing a newer point of view, has attempted to revise and re-synthesize into a unified course all the subject matter of the curriculum which pertains to social studies. Various lines of division among subjects have been broken down, and the content is fused around problems, projects, or topics. These new units of subject matter do not follow any particular sequence of chronology, and, because they are built around interests, activities, and experiences of the pupils, these new units are intended to be flexible. Current social and economic problems receive major emphasis. Civic attitudes are likewise given a definite place in the instruction.

In the investigation reported in this article two groups of pupils pursuing the twelfth-grade course in social studies were compared. One group was taught according to the more conventional techniques; the other was taught by means of newer-type practices. The purposes of the study were to measure the differences in informational outcomes in American history, to measure the differences in dynamic outcomes in civic attitudes and beliefs, and to determine the implications for further experimentation and research.

#### PROCEDURE OF THE INVESTIGATION

*Classroom conditions.*—In all the social-studies classes used in this investigation, the teachers were rated as excellent by their supervisory and administrative officers. Each teacher in his respective school had taught approximately ten years. The pupils in the schools were of approximately the same socio-economic status. Library facilities and other equipment, such as maps, globes, and visual-education materials, were equally available in both schools.

*Experimental practices.*—In the group taught by the newer, or so-called "experimental," methods a problem approach to the study of American history was used. These problems were chosen from the current events which pupils and teacher found reported in current periodicals and newspapers. For example, the Philippine problems reported in current periodicals and newspapers provided a basis for class discussion. During this discussion differences of opinion natu-

<sup>1</sup> Bessie Louise Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part III. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933.

rally arose, and it became necessary for the group to secure a historical background of information regarding the Philippine Islands. After the pupils, individually or in groups, had chosen various problems, they began their investigations. Each pupil chose topics according to his interests. A pupil might, for instance, investigate the evolution of economic, social, political, or educational aspects of his problem.

In all this process of fact-gathering and formulating of new concepts and interpretations, the teacher acted as a guide and counselor to individuals or groups. He acted also as the administrator and the co-ordinator of investigational efforts. For obtaining materials the pupils made extensive use of a selected classroom library of references, as well as the unselected references in the school and the city library. The preparation of reports, both oral and written, was a part of this teaching technique.

Co-operative class discussion which served to co-ordinate and unify the informational knowledges was the next step in the teaching practice. During these discussions different hypotheses concerning policies and problems were debated. In such a procedure it was inevitable that civic attitudes and beliefs should be brought into open discussion. The implications and the relations of these attitudes and beliefs to the interpretation of history and to future political citizenship were discussed, not only by the pupils, but also by the teacher.

Thus, a tentative and flexible course in twelfth-grade social studies was achieved. Self-administering objective tests on various aspects of the problems were used for the guidance of the pupils themselves, as well as for the information of the teacher.

*Conventional practices.*—In the classes using the so-called "conventional" practices, the textbook and the topical approach were extensively used. In the experimental classes current problems in American history were used as a point of departure, but in the conventional class the problems or topics were studied according to their chronological development. After the historical background had been achieved, incidental attempts were made to relate this knowledge to pertinent civic and political problems. Collateral readings and assignments in reference books, other than the basal textbook, were employed. These assignments were usually made in ad-

vance by the teacher in order that individual investigations could be well controlled and supervised. The class discussions and recitations were characterized by an emphasis on a mastery of facts and information. Civic attitudes and beliefs were discussed incidentally, but with no systematic review of their implications. Objective new-type and essay tests were used as instruments of instruction. The sequence of topics in the textbook was closely followed.

#### THE RESULTS

*Appraisal of intellectual factors.*—Thirty pupils in the experimental group were equated on the basis of intelligence with thirty pupils in the conventional group. The mean intelligence quotient (on the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability) of the experimental group was 109.8, with a standard deviation of 12.85; that of the conventional group, 110.3, with a standard deviation of 13.30.

The outcomes in factual knowledge were measured by the Co-operative American History Test, Form 1933. The mean score of the experimental group was 96.9; that of the conventional group, 88.6—a superiority of 8.3 points for the experimental group. The standard deviations were 24.15 for the experimental group and 23.75 for the conventional group. On account of the small number of pupils used in the experiment, the standard error of the differences of the mean scores was 6.18, and the critical ratio was 1.34. In other words, the chances are 910 in 1,000 that the experimental group would achieve a true superiority in factual knowledge over the equivalent conventional group of pupils. This evidence supports the thesis that, in the teaching of the social studies, the newer approach is just as effective as the conventional approach, if not more so.

*Appraisal of dynamic factors.*—In addition to the measurement of the intellectual achievements of pupils taught by the experimental and the conventional methods, certain dynamic factors of civic attitudes and beliefs were also measured. For this purpose a larger sampling of 169 pupils, equated roughly on the basis of general ability and socio-economic status, were tested for each group. These pupils were not equated on the basis of intelligence quotient because intelligence shows a negligible correlation (.11) with scores on civic

attitudes.<sup>1</sup> The attitudes test, which has not yet appeared in published form, has a coefficient of reliability of .94. This test measures liberal versus conservative civic attitudes and beliefs. The mean scores on the civic-attitudes test of the pupils in the experimental group was 120.06, with a standard deviation of 17.10; that of the conventional group was 112.75, with a standard deviation of 16.23. The difference between the mean scores was 7.31, and the standard error of the difference was 1.81, with a critical ratio of 4.04. These scores would indicate that the experimental practices were significantly more effective than were the conventional practices in leading the pupils to liberal points of view on civic problems, such as race relations, international affairs, national politics, and national achievements.

Other unmeasured outcomes that might with plausibility be claimed for the experimental procedure in this investigation are (1) a wider acquaintance and knowledge of current civic and political problems through newspapers and periodicals; (2) a more functional knowledge of the social studies, particularly history; and (3) a better technique for the critical study of social, civic, and economic problems.

#### SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In this investigation the achievement and the development of attitudes of two groups of pupils taught by different techniques were compared. The experimental practices included an approach stressing problems derived from reports in current newspapers and periodicals. Pupil investigations then traced these problems through their historical evolution. Class discussions defined different points of view and attitudes and, in addition, interpreted and unified facts. The conventional practices emphasized the technique of assignment, in advance, of textbook or topical materials for classroom recitation. Assigned collateral reading supplemented the textbook.

On a test of information, the Co-operative American History Test, Form 1933, the group of pupils taught by means of the experimental practices showed a superiority of 8.3 points over the group taught by the conventional method. The chances are 910 in 1,000 that this

<sup>1</sup> J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Civic Beliefs and Correlated Intellectual and Social Factors," *School Review*, XLII (January, 1934), 53-58.

superiority is a true difference in achievement. The experimental group also showed a significant superiority in achievement of liberal civic attitudes and beliefs on race relations, international affairs, national politics, and national achievements. Additional unmeasured outcomes—such as more extensive reading and interest in current civic problems, a functional knowledge of history, and a technique of critical study of civic problems—can be validly claimed for the newer, or experimental, practices.

The results of this study imply that further experimentation and appraisal of newer practices in the social studies are desirable. That the dynamic factors of attitudes and motives arising from civic beliefs are springs of civic action is a hypothesis which, if granted, means that the schools should place an increasing emphasis on this aspect of civic education. It is of great importance for constructive citizenship that the school seek to develop liberal attitudes, as well as a mastery of factual knowledge.



## RECREATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL VALUES OF THE SCHOOL BAND

TROY A. SNYDER

Harbor High School, Ashtabula, Ohio

The present financial plight of the schools has turned the spotlight of public inquiry on practically every phase of school work. The newer subjects, which are frequently referred to as "fads and frills," have been subjected to unusually heavy attack. Many schools, in the name of economy, have dropped one or all of these subjects. Those schools which have not dropped the subjects have frequently found it difficult, because of a scarcity of data proving their values, to show that the service which the subjects render to the community justifies retaining them. The school band, which involves a heavy investment for instruments and equipment, has been severely criticized and has frequently been difficult to justify.

One reason for the trouble in justifying the band is the difficulty experienced when attempts are made to measure the value of instrumental music in terms of its contribution to appreciation or of its worth as a socializing force. It is possible, however, to obtain facts regarding the recreational and the vocational values which music has had for graduates. Such facts will present a valuable, if somewhat incomplete, picture of the worth of such music. This article reports the results of an attempt to measure the recreational and the vocational values which graduates of Harbor High School, Ashtabula, Ohio, found in the school band.

It was decided that an accurate picture of the recreational and the vocational values of the school band would be supplied by securing data on the following five questions: (1) the achievements of the bands of which these graduates had been members, (2) the instrumental training and experience of the graduates in various musical organizations both before and after graduation, (3) the availability of musical instruments for recreational and vocational uses, (4) the

recreational uses of instrumental music in home and community, and (5) the vocational uses of instrumental music. The data for the study were secured by the use of questionnaires, supplemented whenever possible by personal interviews. The questionnaires were sent to all the 117 graduates who had been members of the school band. Ninety-four usable replies were received. Thus, the sample represents 80 per cent of the graduates who had been members of the school band.

TABLE I

RECORD OF ACHIEVEMENTS OF HARBOR HIGH SCHOOL BAND IN YEARS  
1922-33, INCLUSIVE, AND NUMBER OF GRADUATED BAND  
MEMBERS RESPONDING TO QUESTIONNAIRE

Year of Graduation	Number of Graduated Band Members Responding	Contest and Class* in Which Band Was Entered	Award Earned by Band
1922.....	1	Did not compete	.....
1923.....	0	Did not compete	.....
1924.....	1	Did not compete	.....
1925.....	1	Ohio State Band Contest(C)	First
1926.....	5	Ohio State Band Contest(B)	First
1927.....	7	Ohio State Band Contest(A)	Third
1928.....	11	Ohio State Band Contest(A)	Third
1929.....	10	Ohio State Band Contest(A)	Second
1930.....	10	Ohio State Band Contest(A)	Second
1931.....	16	Northeastern Ohio Contest(A)	First
1932.....	13	Did not compete	.....
1933.....	19	Ohio State Band Contest(B)	Tied for second

\* The letters in parentheses show the class in which the band was entered. Under present rules governing participation in Ohio State Band Contests, the Harbor High School Band is placed in Class B and may compete only in that class. Bands are now classified on the basis of school enrolment.

The distribution of the ninety-four respondents according to the year of graduation is given in Table I. The table also indicates the quality of the bands in which these graduates played, as measured by their records in band contests. In this connection it should be mentioned that Harbor High School is a six-year high school, the enrolment of which in 1933-34 was approximately 660 and the maximum enrolment of which (during the years 1922-33) was never much more than 700. In 1933-34 the school band had seventy-five members: in other words, one out of every nine pupils enrolled was a band member. During the years 1931-32 and 1932-33 the propor-

tion was even higher, being approximately one out of eight. In view of the large percentage of pupils participating, it is probable that the personnel of the band was not highly selected or endowed with more than usual musical ability.

The experience of the graduates in various musical organizations is indicated in Table II. The number of years of experience in the

TABLE II  
EXPERIENCE IN VARIOUS MUSICAL ORGANIZATIONS OF NINETY-FOUR  
GRADUATED MEMBERS OF HARBOR HIGH SCHOOL BAND

ORGANIZATION	NUMBER OF GRADUATES WITH EXPERIENCE OF—									TOTAL NUM- BER OF GRAD- UATES	PER- CENT- AGE OF GRAD- UATES	AVER- AGE NUM- BER OF YEARS OF Ex- PERI- ENCE
	One Year	Two Years	Three Years	Four Years	Five Years	Six Years	Seven Years	Eight Years	Nine Years			
High-school band.....	6	10	18	25	8	19	4	0	4	94	100	4.2
High-school orchestra...	9	8	10	14	6	3	1	0	0	51	54	3.3
Non-school bands.....	14	8	4	4	4	1	1	4	4	44	47	3.6
Dance orchestras.....	8	8	5	5	4	1	1	2	3	37	39	3.6
Elementary-school band	10	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	19	1.7
Elementary-school orchestra....	3	7	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	15	16	2.4
College bands	3	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	8	9	2.5
Other organizations....	2	4	1	2	1	0	2	0	0	12	13	3.3

school band ranges from 1 to 9, with an average of 4.2. The eight pupils who had had seven or more years of experience in the school band were not retarded but entered the band while still in the elementary school, a practice which has since been discontinued. Fifty-four per cent of the graduates had had an average of 3.3 years of experience in the high-school orchestra. Forty-seven per cent averaged 3.6 years of experience in non-school bands, such as the band of the American Legion. Thirty-nine per cent had had an average of 3.6 years of experience in dance orchestras. Other data show that 64

per cent had had private instruction on a total of seventy-nine instruments and that fifty-seven of the graduates were able to play one instrument; twenty-eight, two instruments; seven, three instruments; and two, four instruments. The length of time spent by these pupils in the school band and orchestra, the expenditure of effort and money for private instruction, and the ability to play various instruments are strong arguments in favor of the recreational value of instrumental music. It is not probable that pupils would voluntarily devote this great amount of time and effort to an activity which they did not thoroughly enjoy. Unquestionably, the high average of the number of years of experience in the band was a contributing factor to its success in band contests.

The answers made to the fifteen questions concerned with the recreational and vocational values of the school-band experience are shown in Table III. Seventy-four per cent of the graduates owned musical instruments, and 53 per cent of them lived in homes in which other members of the family owned instruments. The seventy graduates owned a total of ninety-one instruments. Fifty-four graduates owned one instrument; thirteen, two instruments; two, three instruments; and one, five instruments. The factor of ownership is of great importance because a person cannot play for recreation or make music his vocation unless he has an instrument available for his use. Only 17 per cent of the graduates lived in homes in which no musical instruments were available for recreational or vocational use. In almost every case in which there was but one instrument in the home, the owner of the instrument was the graduate.

Although training, experience, and availability of instruments are important factors affecting recreational uses of band music, the important thing is the use which the graduates make of their ability. Table III shows that 54 per cent of these musicians used their instruments to play "just for fun." Twenty-seven of the fifty-one played "just for fun" an average of 1.5 times a day; eighteen of them, an average of 2.7 times a week; and six of them, only 2.8 times a month. Sixty-four per cent of the graduates had pianos in the home which could be used for accompaniment. Twenty-seven per cent said they were able to transpose from the piano music and did not need specially arranged music for the pieces that they played "just

for fun." Nineteen per cent owned instruments which could be used to play the melody part with the piano without transposition or specially arranged music.

One-half of the graduates made significant contributions to the community by playing in various organizations. Forty-seven per

TABLE III  
ANSWERS MADE TO FIFTEEN QUESTIONS BY NINETY-FOUR  
GRADUATED MEMBERS OF HARBOR HIGH SCHOOL BAND

QUESTION	YES		No	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
1. Do you own a musical instrument?.....	70	74	24	26
2. Do other members of the family own instruments?..	50	53	44	47
3. Do you play "just for fun"?.....	51	54	43	46
4. Have you played for pay during 1933?.....	46*	40	48	51
5. Have you had private instruction?.....	60	64	34	36
6. Is there a piano in the home?.....	60	64	34	36
7. Can you transpose from piano music?.....	25	27	69	73
8. Have you an instrument playing the melody part with piano without transposition or specially ar- ranged music?.....	18	19	76	81
9. Do you play for churches, clubs, etc.?.....	47	50	47	50
a) Regularly?.....	18	19	76	81
b) On special occasions?.....	29†	31		
10. Did you enjoy playing in the high-school band?...	86	92	8	8
11. Do you expect to become a professional musician?..	15	16	79	84
12. Have you studied in music school?.....	9	10	85	90
a) Have you the Bachelor's degree in music?.....	4	4	90	96
13. Have you found music of value in college?.....	7‡	7		
14. Do you find music helpful in your present work?...	20	21	74	79
15. Do you consider the time and money spent in the school band a good investment?.....	88	94	6	6

\* Thirty-seven of the forty-six had played in dance orchestras.

† This figure does not include the eighteen graduates who played regularly.

‡ Nine of the ninety-four graduates attended colleges other than music schools.

cent of them played in such bands as the American Legion Band. These figures take no account of the contribution made by the school band by playing at school and community affairs.

Sixty-two per cent of the graduates owning instruments reported their initial cost. The total amount invested in the ninety-one instruments owned by the graduates was \$10,794. The value of the

instruments used for pleasure, for pay, or both was \$9,749. The instruments used for pleasure were valued at \$6,634, and those used for pay cost \$7,641. Only \$1,045 of the total investment of \$10,794 was invested in instruments that were used neither for pleasure nor for pay.

Table III shows that 49 per cent of the graduates played for pay during 1933. The majority of those who reported their earnings made from one to five dollars a week. Eleven reported that they were making their living by playing or teaching music and were earning from fifteen to forty dollars a week. Because of the graduates' reluctance to state the exact amounts earned, these figures are only approximate. It is significant that eleven graduates were making their living by playing or teaching music during 1933, since 1933 was not a favorable year for musicians. Sixteen per cent of the graduates planned to make music their vocation, and ten per cent had made definite progress toward this goal by taking advanced training in music schools. Four of these had earned the Bachelor's degree in music. Twenty-one per cent found their musical experiences of value to them in non-musical vocations. Those who were planning to make music their life-work were unanimous in the assertion that their experience in the school band had been invaluable to them in music school.

This study shows that school-band music had recreational and vocational values for a large percentage of the band members during school years and after graduation. In addition to the personal enjoyment derived from the music, these graduates have made, and still are making, a definite contribution to the community by providing music for school and community affairs. Over 90 per cent of the investment in instruments represented instruments that were used for recreation or pay, or both.

The school band has been of vocational value to a considerable number of graduates. It has provided a significant number of them with a means of livelihood and has given 10 per cent of the total a start toward a musical profession. Almost half of the graduated band members were able to earn some money by playing during the

year 1933. The individual earnings were not large, but the total would represent a considerable sum. In many cases these earnings were the graduates' only sources of income during the year.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the recreational and the vocational values are only two of a large number of values claimed for school-band music. The extent to which these graduates realized these two values seems to justify the investment in the band. There is every reason to believe that the other values would show definite and worth-while contributions if it were possible to measure them. As a teacher, I should feel highly gratified if I were certain that all school subjects made such a real contribution to the community and to the individual graduate as this band has made.



## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND EARL ARMSTRONG  
Stanford University

The following list of references has been selected from those published since April 30, 1933. Only those references generally available have been included. An attempt has been made to select the references which give descriptions of practice, presentations of results of investigation, or analyses of important educational issues.

### GENERAL<sup>1</sup>

505. CLEM, ORLIE M., and KLYVER, RICHARD. "Administrative Practices in Six-Year Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XLII (April, 1934), 294-98. Reports the administrative practices in fifty-four high schools in New York and Pennsylvania and the practices favored by twenty-nine superintendents of schools and twenty-nine professors of secondary education.
506. COX, PHILIP W. L., and LANGFITT, R. E. *High School Administration and Supervision*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1934. Pp. xx+690. A practical treatment of the problems of high-school organization and management.
507. ENGELHARDT, FRED; ZEIGEL, WILLIAM H., JR., and BILLET, ROY O. *Administration and Supervision*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 11. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. viii+208. An enumeration and discussion of the prevailing plans of administration and supervision in American secondary schools. Special attention is given to the supervisory programs in thirty cities outstanding in supervision.
508. LINDQUIST, RUDOLPH D. "How To Improve Secondary Schools from a Functional Viewpoint," *Nation's Schools*, XII (December, 1933), 11-12. A discussion of the extent to which principles of business may operate to the detriment of secondary education. Positive suggestions for the improvement of secondary schools are made.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 297 in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1934, number of the *School Review*.

## ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES AFFECTING ACHIEVEMENT

509. FRENCH, WILL. *Promotional Plans in the High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 587. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. vi+90.

A study of the comparative effects of annual and semiannual promotion plans on (1) the work of the teacher, (2) administrative practices, (3) pupil entrance and graduation at mid-year, and (4) pupil progress.

510. LYSETH, HARRISON G. "The Administration of Attendance in Large High Schools," *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 139-52. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 50. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1934.

An evaluation of the procedures in 436 schools with regard to attendance and tardiness. The use of penalties in some schools and guidance in others is contrasted effectively.

511. MARSHALL, HENRY COWLES. "Trial Promotion—An Administrative Device for the Improvement of Learning," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XX (May, 1934), 373-81.

Advocates trial promotion and presents results of a study of a plan followed in Columbus, Ohio. Reports that 75 per cent of the pupils promoted on trial achieved success by the end of the school year.

512. RICHARDS, ESTHER L. "Discipline and Adjustment," *Education*, LIV (March, 1934), 403-9.

A contrast of the old and the new concepts of discipline. Freedom and license are also treated.

SIZE OF CLASS<sup>1</sup>

513. CARLEY, VERNA A., and HAND, HAROLD C. "Class Size in American Secondary Schools," *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 134-38. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 50. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1934.

Reports the prevalence of large classes in eighteen hundred high schools in the United States. Some attention is also given to the intangibles which should be considered in class size. More than 20 per cent of all schools reported had at least one class with an enrolment of more than fifty.

514. DALTHORP, CHARLES J. "An Experiment with a Large and Small Class in English Composition," *High School Teacher*, X (February, 1934), 51.

A brief report of an experiment with two classes in composition, one class containing eleven pupils and the other thirty-nine. Results for both groups on the

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 81 in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1934, number of the *School Review*.

Pressey and Tressler tests are presented. Little difference is found as a result of the size of classes.

515. HANCOCK, J. LEONARD. "Class Size in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, III (May, 1933), 450-55.

A discussion of class size, especially as it affects the teacher. A criticism is given of the previous studies in this area.

#### GROUPING AND OTHER ADAPTATIONS TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES<sup>1</sup>

516. CLEM, ORLIE M., and CALHOON, A. R. "Organizing Junior High Schools To Meet Individual Differences," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XIX (November, 1933), 571-77.

A report of an investigation of certain organization practices in the high schools of the state of New York. Seventy-seven schools are considered in the study, ranging from large schools in New York City to small up-state schools.

517. CLEM, ORLIE M., and WROATH, LYDIA F. "Practices in Homogeneous Grouping in Junior High School," *Educational Method*, XIII (January, 1934), 206-10.

Reports present practices of grouping in eighty large high schools. Seventy-one of the eighty use some form of grouping. The factors most commonly used as a basis for grouping are given.

518. CLINE, E. C. "Differentiating Secondary Education," *School Review*, XLII (June, 1934), 431-39.

Deals with curricular provisions for taking care of individual differences. Grouping on the basis of interest is advocated.

519. FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A. "Annual and Semiannual Promotions," *School Review*, XLI (December, 1933), 747-58.

Experimental evidence taken especially from York, Pennsylvania, and Hartford, Connecticut, presented to show the ill effect of semiannual promotions. Such problems as cost, achievement, offerings, personal and continuous attention, and ability grouping are treated.

520. FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A. "Fifteen Years of Homogeneous Grouping in the High School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XX (May, 1934), 382-91.

A review of the experience of Hartford, Connecticut, with ability grouping. Modifications of the Army Alpha test serve as the chief basis for classification.

521. FINGER, C. P. "Experimental Classification," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (May, 1934), 558.

Discusses grouping in general with special attention to the plan in use in the Frick Junior High School, Oakland, California. The plan described is an attempt to secure a type of social grouping.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 37 in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1934, number and Item 462 in the September, 1934, number of the *School Review*.

522. KINGSLEY, JOHN H. "Junior-High-School Grouping," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (September, 1933), 48-50.

A review of different methods of ability grouping, together with a description of the plans in use in the junior high schools of Albany, New York. The curriculum proposed is of the triple-track plan.

523. WITTY, PAUL A., and WILKINS, LAROE W. "The Status of Acceleration or Grade Skipping as an Administrative Practice," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XIX (May, 1933), 321-46.

A sketch of the efforts which have been made to provide for individual differences, including ability grouping, the Winnetka plan, enrichment programs, and grade skipping. Special attention is given to the latter as a means of providing for gifted children.

#### LENGTH OF PERIOD AND SCHOOL DAY

524. GREIG, ROY A. "A Double Period, Two-Subject Program for High School Students," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (September, 1933), 227-28.

Proposes two-hour class periods for regular subjects. Describes the plan in operation at Fairport Harbor, Ohio.

525. McMILLIN, MARTHA. "Economy and the Hour Period," *American School Board Journal*, LXXXVIII (February, 1934), 50.

Sets forth the findings of an investigation into the relative costs of instruction in eleven departments under the hour-period plan in a large high school. Data dealing with the educational value of the hour period are also presented.

526. RICHARDSON, ALLEN B. "A Study of the Relation between Number of Study Periods and Pupils' Marks," *School Review*, XLII (February, 1934), 104-10.

A study of the relation of scholarship to the number of study-hall periods provided for each pupil. The ability and maturity necessary for independent study are considered.

#### COSTS AND ECONOMIES

527. *Economies in Secondary-School Administration*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 48. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1933. Pp. 32.

Reports means by which schools over the country are effecting economies during the depression. Practically all phases of administration from transportation to teacher load are treated.

528. PIERCE, FRANKLIN E. "Economies and the Secondary School Program," *High School Teacher*, IX (October, 1933), 304-5.

Surveys the subjects being dropped in the high schools of Connecticut and discusses some desirable means of effecting school economies.

529. STEEPER, H. T. "Economies in the High-School Program," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (May, 1934), 559-61.  
Presents nineteen economy measures which have been instituted in the North High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

## LIBRARY

530. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "The School Administrator and the Secondary School Library," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VIII (January, 1934), 362-65.  
A condensed treatment of the findings which are reported in *The Secondary-School Library* (National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 17. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932). Results of statistical studies and practical suggestions are given.
531. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "Stephens College Library Experiment," *Junior College Journal*, IV (April, 1934), 358-61.  
Describes the organization and the procedures in an attempt to make the library the center of a college. The librarian is dean of instruction.
532. RANEY, M. LLEWELLYN. "Books and the New College Plan at Chicago," *Junior College Journal*, IV (March, 1934), 281-86.  
Describes the distribution and the arrangement of the library of about two thousand titles provided for the orientation courses at the University of Chicago.
533. WOLSELEY, R. E. "Another Successful Partnership," *American School Board Journal*, LXXXVIII (May, 1934), 27-28.  
A description of the co-operation between the public schools and the public library in Evanston, Illinois. Other similar plans are cited.

## PUBLIC RELATIONS

534. FARLEY, BELMONT. *Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 16. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+114.  
A detailed account of the policies and the practices of a few selected schools in achieving publicity and an estimate of the effectiveness of certain publicity mediums used generally in secondary schools.

## RECORDS AND REPORTS

535. BEATTY, WILLARD W. "Objectifying School Marks," *American School Board Journal*, LXXXVII (July, 1933), 27-28.  
A criticism of traditional marks and a proposal that school marks as reported to parents be based on objective evidence. A section of a high-school report in use at Bronxville is presented.

536. ROGERS, FREDERICK RAND. "Education versus the Marking System: The Case for the Elimination of the Traditional Report Card," *Education*, LIV (December, 1933), 234-39.  
An attack on all types of marks. Ten charges are made and defended.
537. SMITH, EUGENE RANDOLPH. "Judging and Recording Pupil Characteristics," *Educational Record*, XV (January, 1934), 87-105.  
Presents ten trait headings which, in the judgment of the Reports and Records Committee of the Progressive Education Association, satisfy three criteria.

## STAFF

538. DEFFENBAUGH, W. S., and ZEIGEL, WILLIAM H., JR. *Selection and Appointment of Teachers*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 12. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. viii+116.  
Lists the most common practices used by administrators in locating, investigating, and employing teachers. Certain unique practices are presented in detail.
539. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Measuring the Teaching Load," *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 152-59. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 50. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1934.  
A presentation of the factors which should be considered and the weighting that each should be given in determining the teaching load. A formula is presented and explained.
540. LAMBERT, A. C. "How Long Is the Teacher's Day?" *Nation's Schools*, XIII (February, 1934), 38-40.  
A report of an investigation into the number of hours that teachers work in a certain school district in Utah. The extent to which the teacher's time is divided between extra-class duties and the teaching of regular classes is indicated.
541. SEYBOLD, ARTHUR M. "The Principal and the New Teacher," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (May, 1933), 561-65.  
Lists the difficulties which new teachers have and suggests helpful means of inducing inexperienced teachers into service. Social as well as professional aid is suggested.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Advancing classroom practice.*—It is possible to blend the best of the new with the best of the old in the field of method to produce a stimulating yet not chaotic practice for the classroom in the progressive public school. This very wholesome result has been achieved successfully in a work<sup>1</sup> which consciously and consistently follows the mid-course between traditionalism and activism. Though written from the point of view of the elementary school, this book so adequately co-ordinates opposing points of view in method that its generalizations are alive with implications of significant value to secondary-school workers as well.

The authors have departed somewhat from the traditional in the structure of their book. Like their treatment of content, this departure in form is not radical. "Fundamental Principles" and "Activities and Techniques of Teaching," Parts I and II, respectively, resemble the typical approach used in textbooks in the field of method. The other three main divisions, "Techniques and Activities of Learning," "The Media of Teaching and Learning," "and Teaching and Learning by Wholes," represent adaptations of form.

After Part I, in which the newer points of view predominate, a progressive departure from the more traditional to the newer is noticeable as the reader proceeds through the other four divisions. Part II retains the trademarks in the chapter titles: "Organization and Management of the Classroom," "Lesson Planning," "The Assignment," "Questioning," "Directing Children's Study Activities," "The Socialized Recitation or Discussion," "Diagnosis," "Remedial Teaching," "Drill," "The Review," and "Testing and Examining." The contents of these chapters, however, have been largely modernized by substituting new materials for the obsolete. The greater departure from the old in Part III is more apparent in the content of the chapters than in their headings, although the headings themselves give indications of change: "Observational Learning," "Motor Learning," "Associative Learning," "Problem Solving," "Experimental Learning," "Creative Learning," and "Appreciation." Part IV deviates by isolating the instruments of teaching and learning—in chapters entitled "Conversation and Discussion," "Story Telling," "Dramatization," "Reporting and Recitation," and "Reading"—and by describing how these are used

<sup>1</sup> Gerald Alan Yoakam and Robert Gilkey Simpson, *An Introduction to Teaching and Learning*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. x+498. \$2.50.



by superior teachers. Chapter xxv, "Integrated Teaching and Learning Activities," which constitutes the whole of Part V, discusses recent developments in method.

There is less of the illustrative in this work than is usually found. The authors have preferred to tell about the processes rather than to include numerous samples in the book. Exceptions to this general policy occur in the series of valuable illustrative check lists covering, among others, the following procedures: observational learning, pages 269 and 275; problems, page 308; experimental learning, page 340; original production, page 355; and activities, pages 481-82.

Fewer than the usual number of references and quotations are incorporated into the text. Instead of quoting directly, the authors have co-ordinated and integrated varying points of view in their own presentation. To a legitimate extent, however, use is made of the earlier works of the senior author.

It is unfortunate that some errors in proofreading appear. In the first line on page 264 "above" is used where "about" is intended. More serious are occasional errors or inconsistencies in the footnotes. On page 369 the address of one of the newer publishing houses is omitted in referring to a valuable publication. On pages 290 and 315 slightly different forms are used for footnote references. An incomplete reference is made on page 242. The copyright date for Reference 20 on page 42 is incorrect.

The thinking of the typical beginning student in education would be halted by *per se* in the sixth line of the book (p. 3), and it would likely be interrupted by the appearance of *sine qua non* at the end of an interesting discussion on page 27. Nor would in *loco parentis* on page 54 adequately replace its English equivalent in the mind of the usual beginning student. It is the reviewer's opinion that even those students acquainted with Latin gain nothing from the Latin phrases which they would not gain from the English equivalents. In individual sentences sufficient emphasis is achieved by the clarity of expression typical of the work, while the book as a whole engenders proper respect for the field by the very evident value of its contents.

If asked to name important topics not sufficiently stressed by the book, many would mention differentiation of method for varying ability levels, adaptation of procedure to the unit concept, and the influence of the radio.

The chief weakness of the book, in the reviewer's opinion, is the treatment of testing and examining. Portions of that chapter mar an otherwise excellent contribution. The discussion of reliability, by failing to stress the nature of the item, would suggest to the uninformed that the chief means of attaining reliability in a test is to increase the number of items. The median is treated on page 250 in only three sentences, each of which falls far short of the standard set by the book. The rules stated on page 250 for calculating the standard deviation do not include all terms used on the following page in the problem there presented. The treatment of "Determining point scores" on page 246-47 is confusing rather than convincing. It is implied on pages 252 and 253 that relative standing in a

class is the sole basis for marking, no reference being made to norms. In addition to misleading beginning students of education, some portions of this chapter offer persons already prejudiced against the profession the opportunity to render caustic criticism.

J. G. UMSTATTD

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

*Financial implications of the 6-3-3 plan of organization.*—The junior high school has for years been accepted as an improved form of administrative organization offering peculiar opportunities for the adjustment of curriculums and instruction to the nature and needs of pupils in Grades VII-IX. As an effective unit of school organization, it is supported by an extensive literature which attests the validity of its foundations in terms of the laws of child development and of learning and which furnishes ample evidence of gratifying achievements in the numerous school systems in which it has been established. Under the stimulus of these favorable writings, the junior high school movement has developed rapidly, as reforms in educational procedure go. There has been a perceptible resistance in some quarters, however, because of the apparent higher cost of the organization called for by the standard specifications of a junior high school. Moreover, such reports of investigations of junior high school costs as have appeared have supported rather than discredited this assumption. The first thoroughgoing analysis of the financial implications of the junior high school plan of organization<sup>1</sup> furnishes objective evidence that such organization is not inherently more expensive than the 8-4 plan and explains how the several cost factors may operate to produce higher or lower levels of expenditure under either type of organization.

The plan of this study includes three separate comparisons of the cost effects of the 6-3-3 type of organization as opposed to the 8-4 plan. The first comparison is made between the financial support accorded Grades VII-IX and both the higher and the lower grade units of organization in 107 school systems providing for all pupils in Grades VII-IX in separately organized junior high school units. These school systems are in cities in six eastern states with populations of five thousand or more. The second comparison is between per pupil costs in forty-two 6-3-3 systems and forty-seven 8-4 systems as a whole. The third comparison is made between per pupil costs in Grades VII-IX in twelve systems of the 6-3-3 type and an equal number of the 8-4 type, the two groups being matched in terms of number of pupils, type of community, wealth per pupil, and geographical location. In the second and the third comparisons all cities were selected from the state of Massachusetts because of convenience in securing the necessary data. In all comparisons expenditures for capital outlay and debt service are excluded.

<sup>1</sup> Wilbur I. Gooch, *Junior High School Costs*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 604. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. x+160. \$1.75.

The first analysis shows that average per pupil costs in the junior high school unit of 6-3-3 systems are approximately midway between the cost level of the elementary school and that of the senior high school. While a wide range appears in per pupil costs in junior high schools, there is a high correlation between these costs and the per pupil costs in both elementary-school and senior high school units in the 107 systems considered. The inference is that the level of cost in the junior high school unit is determined by the same factors which determine the financial support of the other organization units in each community.

The second comparative analysis shows that the average cost per pupil for current expenses of the school system as a whole is slightly lower in 6-3-3 systems than in those which have retained the 8-4 plan. Moreover, the third analysis shows that in 6-3-3 systems the cost in Grades VII-IX bears approximately the same ratios to the cost in elementary-school grades and to the cost in senior high school grades as are found in comparisons of the same grade groups of 8-4 systems. In interpretation of these findings, the author declares that "the determination of whether or not a system shall remain 8-4 or shift to the 6-3-3 plan must rest upon considerations other than those of a financial nature, so far as current expense is concerned" (p. 151).

A section of the report explains the significant features of junior high school programs and discusses the effect of these features on cost. It appears from this analysis that, while certain features of the junior high school program tend to increase the cost of schooling for the pupils concerned, these same features are likely to be even more costly when provided under the 8-4 plan. In the main, cost differences are accounted for in terms of differences in salaries paid and in size of classes. The salary factor is a matter of policy and may be so determined as to tend toward higher or toward lower per pupil costs in a reorganized system. Gooch finds that class size can be more effectively controlled in the average 6-3-3 than in the average 8-4 situation, because of the concentration of upper-grade pupils in fewer units under the former plan. He therefore concludes that "the 6-3-3 type of organization provides a situation which, if clearly recognized and intelligently administered, will probably permit the provision of educational offerings characteristic of the junior high school idea at a lower per pupil cost in the 6-3-3 than in the 8-4 organization" (p. 159).

The report indicates that the study has been carefully made, and that practically all significant factors have been appropriately dealt with. A valuable addition to this study of current costs would be an analysis of the relative cost of housing under the two plans of organization. As it stands, the report provides a definite answer to a question which school authorities generally have had to consider on the basis of assumption rather than in the light of dependable evidence.

NELSON B. HENRY

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*Housing the junior college in California.*—With the federal amendment regarding non-employment of children below the age of eighteen, with increased

attention to adult education, and with such reorganizations of universities as has taken place at the University of Minnesota and the University of Chicago to care for the first two years of education after the student has finished high school, future attention of the educational world will be largely focused on the junior college. Such a book as that by Hardesty,<sup>1</sup> in which is considered the housing problem of junior colleges in California, is likely to receive careful consideration.

The author bases his conclusions on a survey of the housing problem of thirty-two junior colleges in California, twenty-one of which he visited in person. He devotes a separate chapter to each of the following topics: the curriculum in relation to the housing problem; class size; the classroom; library, auditorium, and cafeteria; locker facilities; office needs and provisions; the relation of housing to other school units; and the junior-college site. These discussions are illustrated by detailed application to the junior college at Santa Monica. Among his recommendations are that most schools with enrolments of over four hundred be housed separately, that increased attention be given toward making the library the educational center, that the policy with respect to class size determine the size and the type of the classroom, and that increased attention be given to the terminal function of the junior college.

Eighteen of the junior colleges studied were housed with the high schools, while fourteen were housed separately. The opinions of 90.6 per cent of the administrators of the junior colleges secured through means of a questionnaire were in favor of separate housing, largely because student morale is better under such an arrangement. The findings indicate that, on the whole, the thirty-two junior colleges have failed to provide the minimum library space recommended by the Junior College Section of the American Library Association.

The median class size in the twenty-one schools visited was from 16 in music to 37 in the social studies, although in five schools class size ranged, in one subject only, from 100 to 150, exclusive of physical education. The plan of the University of Minnesota and of the University of Chicago in combining *all students* taking a subject into one lecture course will be watched with interest.

Finally, the author recommends that the junior colleges of California offer curriculums calculated to realize more effectively than they now do the terminal function of education. Too often students reaching the senior year of high school express their intention of going to college when there is little likelihood that they will be able to do so. The terminal or vocational course in junior college ends with the period of the junior college. It would be far better that the students realize this fact and plan their courses to end accordingly.

California leads all the states in the number of junior colleges, and practices in this state will be watched with interest. The author devotes attention to the

<sup>1</sup> Cecil Donald Hardesty, *Problems and Practices in Housing the Junior-College Program in California*. Southern California Education Monographs, 1933-34 Series, No. 3. Los Angeles, California: University of Southern California Press, 1934. Pp. xiv+154. \$1.50.

influence of guidance and adult education on the building program, which until this time has been more or less neglected but which must receive much more attention if the functions of the junior college are to be realized.

EDWIN S. LIDE

WRIGHT CITY JUNIOR COLLEGE, CHICAGO

*The program of studies in the National Survey of Secondary Education.*—The monograph under review<sup>1</sup> deals with two matters: (1) the trend of subjects offered and required by junior and senior high schools and the enrolments therein and (2) practices employed by various secondary schools in registering pupils and preparing class schedules.

It is the first of these subjects which is of major interest and with which this review will be chiefly concerned. However, lest the treatment which the volume gives the second subject should not receive the attention that it merits, the reviewer here suggests that any principal or any of his assistants can ill afford to pass by the opportunity made possible by the section to compare the methods of registration and schedule-making in his school with those in other schools. These are matters which are often characterized by much "blundering through," a portion of which might be eliminated if principals would carefully study these pages.

While there have been frequent studies of high-school offerings (the authors list twenty-six which they consider important), the treatment in this volume is so much more comprehensive than anything heretofore available that the other studies will from now on be of little more than historical importance. For several years to come there should be no need for circularizing high-school principals with questionnaires asking what subjects are offered, required, and elected. The saving in time made possible by this one item more than justifies the work involved in the study.

In the junior high school field the two most common changes which have taken place in the past decade have been (1) a large increase in the time devoted to "socializing integrative activities" and (2) the development of fused courses in the fields of science, social science, mathematics, and English. The authors believe that the data reveal a number of specific changes over the interval which indicate an abandonment of the traditional conception of the secondary school as an institution to train pupils for admittance to college. As a result, grammar, algebra, ancient history, and physical geography have given way, to a considerable extent, to correlated English, general mathematics, correlated social studies, and general science.

Various studies of the senior high school are reported indicating the changes in programs of studies which have taken place over different periods of time,

<sup>1</sup> A. K. Loomis, Edwin S. Lide, and B. Lamar Johnson, *The Program of Studies*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 19. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. x+340.

ranging up to forty years. The outstanding change in programs of studies over this period has been an increase of approximately 500 per cent in the number of courses offered. The authors report that "a total of 419 distinct courses are listed" (p. 133). While this expansion has resulted in a considerable enrichment of the curriculum and has given some help in caring for individual differences, it has not been so fruitful as the figures would indicate. Indeed, to a considerable degree it would seem that this expansion has been a mere trial-and-error method of attempting to meet the needs of a new type of pupil in the secondary school and has served as a means of escaping the responsibility of building a really new and adequate program.

The authors report the following changes from 1890 to 1930 in the distribution of work taken in secondary schools by graduates: English, 13.1 per cent to 21.3 per cent; social studies, 10.9 per cent to 16.3 per cent; foreign languages, 38.7 per cent to 17.6 per cent; mathematics, 16.0 per cent to 13.5 per cent; science, 17.7 per cent to 10.1 per cent; non-academic subjects, 3.6 per cent to 21.2 per cent.

In conclusion, the authors report that they discern "indications of an impending series of revolutionary changes in the program of studies in the secondary school" (p. 277). Among those which they suggest may occur are the following: a completion of secondary education in two years less time than at present, abandonment of Carnegie units, more adequate provision for guidance in senior high schools, increased enrolments in science, placing stress on work in mathematics and foreign languages "only for pupils who have need and ability to understand them" (p. 279), and a better working relation between colleges and secondary schools.

The profession of secondary education is deeply indebted to those responsible for the studies made available in this volume for their searching analysis of the trend—or, perhaps, drift—which has characterized the program of studies during the past decades.

C. L. CUSHMAN

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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*A simple treatment of adolescent psychology.*—If all the students in all the departments of education and training schools in Christendom were given an opportunity to speak their minds on the faults and the weaknesses of the present content of the courses of training for beginning teachers, the venerable criticism that much of the material is of a pedantic and impractical nature would probably be found with embarrassing frequency. Not only is it true that authors have written all too often for their colleagues rather than for their students, but, even when the material has been within the comprehension range of the beginning student, it has sometimes been of such a theoretical and impractical nature as to seem to the student almost grotesque. If, in reading Arlitt's treatment of



the psychology of adolescence,<sup>1</sup> one is tempted at times to feel that the discussion is at once naïve, dogmatic, and comparatively sparsely documented, the answer is immediately forthcoming in the obvious fact that the book is written for students and not for critical co-workers in the field and that the effort is not so much to give a complete historical and experimental justification of each point as to interpret for prospective teachers the fairly well-established data in the field.

The book begins with a discussion of the "Physical Changes at Adolescence." It is in this chapter and in the following chapter on instinct that the meritorious factors of the book are least in evidence. The treatment of the physical changes of adolescence is comparatively short, conservative, and drawn from the traditional authorities, such as Baldwin. As is usual, however, the educational significance or value is touched only by implication, if at all. What difference does it make if a teacher knows that pupils have a pineal gland if no clues are given as to the symptomology of its malfunction—clues which a teacher might conceivably recognize and do something about?

The chapter on "Instinctive Tendencies" is traditional and would doubtless cause considerable pain to those trained in some of our modern schools of psychology. For one desiring a bilateral view of such an "entity" as the instinct of gregariousness, for example, a book like Floyd H. Allport's *Social Psychology* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924) should be read in conjunction with Arlitt's book. Only in the discussion under the caption "The Tendency To Do as Others Do" has Mrs. Arlitt shown any indication of an inclination to avoid a traditional treatment.

The second major group of chapters (iv-vii, inclusive) is given over to a discussion of the emotional life at adolescence. In spite of a semi-anecdotal style and the forced condensation of many of the topics, this section is both interesting and valuable. The chapter "Adolescent Escape and Defense Mechanisms" is especially to be commended. The weakest part of the thesis, at least from the standpoint of certain schools of psychology, in this group of chapters and the following one is the unnecessary introduction of consciousness as an explanatory principle. For example: "It is a well-known fact that consciousness exists in varying degrees of clearness. If one may use the older form of discussion made familiar by the writers of psychological texts, one may assume five levels of consciousness, each of which merges into the next imperceptibly" (p. 68). Following the two chapters on "Emotional Maturing" comes a series of three chapters on the learning, memory, and intelligence of adolescence. The content in these chapters, as in some of the others, is traditional. Some experimental material is cited, most of which, however, is not of recent date.

The discussion of mental growth is followed by two chapters on personality, and the first reference in the former chapter, from J. B. Watson's *Behaviorism* (New York: W. W. Norton Co., Inc., 1930), seems strangely out of place, fol-

<sup>1</sup> Ada Hart Arlitt, *Adolescent Psychology*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1933. Pp. x+250. \$2.25.



lowing the frequent allusions to consciousness in the preceding discussions of emotions and learning. The discussion of "Disturbances in Adolescent Personality" is rather full, but it ends with the peculiar statement, "It cannot be said too strongly that no attempt at diagnosis of personality disturbances should be made by the layman, the teacher, or the beginning student of psychology or psychiatry" (p. 198). One wonders why, in the face of this statement, such an item as the lengthy section from Adolf Meyer on the pathogenesis of dementia praecox was included on pages 189-91, since, from the standpoint of the author, the task of the teacher is the development of habits which will prevent personality maladjustments. It would seem more to the point to center the discussions, not in the symptoms of maladjustment, but in the elements necessary in a program of preventive hygiene. The reviewer is able to agree only partially with the statement that the teacher should never attempt diagnosis of personality disturbances. In the first place, it is possible to recognize deviation without attempting a cure, and some would contend that it is the teacher's job to make at least a preliminary diagnosis with a view to transmitting the case to a professional psychiatrist. Furthermore, in many out-of-the-way communities it is diagnosis by the teacher or nothing.

The last two chapters of the book are on "Moral and Religious Development at Adolescence" and "The Hygiene of Adolescence." The chapter on "The Hygiene of Adolescence" is exceptionally good and contains a definitive and explicit program of positive suggestions which might well be read by every parent and teacher.

The book abounds with really original and charming illustrative stories, most aptly chosen. These are of the sort which should be especially attractive to beginning students and should serve to clarify many otherwise involved points.

In view of the comparatively small number of references given and the publication date of 1933, one would have expected a more representative sampling of recent material. One wonders also, especially bearing in mind the point of view of some of the chapters, how such a book as Frederick Elmer Bolton's *Adolescent Education* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1931) could have been completely omitted from reference. G. Stanley Hall is not mentioned.

In spite of what this or other reviews might say with regard to some of the technical or theoretical shortcomings of the book, it is entirely possible that a beginning student would have as adequate a comprehension of the subject after reading this textbook as he would have after perusal of a more scholarly, technical, and elaborate treatment, such as, for example, that given by Professor Brooks (Fowler D. Brooks, *The Psychology of Adolescence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929).

FRANCIS F. POWERS

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

*Dictation materials for shorthand teachers.*—The teacher of shorthand has done only part of his job when he has trained a skilful and rapid shorthand penman. By means of dictation materials and transcription practice he provides oppor-

tunities for the application of shorthand principles and improves facility in writing; but he is also expected to develop appreciation of good diction; he must call attention to good illustrations of the technique of letter-writing and bring the pupil to appreciate effective business letters; and he must look for materials that will develop in the pupil all that is covered by the term "occupational intelligence." In short, he is expected to make of the pupil a stenographer rather than merely another writer of shorthand.

It is natural that this attention to the extended function of dictation materials should greatly improve the textbooks in the field as they appear. Concentration on words of high frequency follows as a matter of course. Letters illustrate practices and activities common to a wide variety of businesses. Articles and letters have content value that makes them worthy of study and class discussion, and the inclusion of instructions to teachers improves classroom teaching by making available good teaching devices.

A recent textbook<sup>1</sup> illustrates many of these improvements and presents some unique features. It presents, in order progressive as to difficulty, a wide variety of dictation materials, including notably (1) letters from the New York Regents' examinations (Shorthand II); (2) a section in which several complete business transactions are traced, the letters connected with each appearing in sequence, so that each letter may be studied with reference to the whole transaction of which it is a part; and (3) a section devoted to articles on aspects of business about which the stenographer should be thinking. A well-constructed index is another valuable feature of the book, which makes it possible for the teacher to find quickly dictation material on any desired topic or material of any desired length.

The author believes that the stenographer should be trained to grasp the content of a letter as it is dictated to him and introduces the practice of directing the pupil's attention to the content by means of a question at the end of each letter. Shorthand teachers will not agree on the worth of this practice, but, even so, the questions are helpful in that they suggest to teachers additional values which should come from dictation and transcription activities.

As yet it is possible to secure the book with plates and dictionary in Isaac Pitman shorthand only. A Gregg edition is promised by the publishers sometime during the year.

J. M. TRYITEN

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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*Training a secretary.*—The fact that the term "secretary" is applied "to positions ranging from high governmental and executive posts to those requiring little more than stenographic ability" (p. 3) perhaps accounts for the slow progress made in the organization of materials to be used in the training of secre-

<sup>1</sup> Sadie Krupp Newman, *Modern Graded Dictation*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. xxx+440. \$1.40.

taries. Some of the early textbooks on secretarial training treat only of the routine knowledges and techniques which are now acquired in a junior business course; others treat of dictation, transcription, and form, which are generally acquired in a course in stenography. Within the last ten years, however, emphasis has been placed on secretarial duties involving responsibility, as well as information and skill. Some textbooks present these activities as a unit, while others attempt to correlate these activities with actual working conditions in various types of businesses.

A recent textbook<sup>1</sup> contains not only the commonly included units on secretarial activities, such as "Office Reference Books," "The Telephone," "Other Means of Communication," "Office Machines," but also such units as "Collecting and Organizing Material—Itineraries, Graphs, Scrapbooks, Addresses, Reports" and "The Personal Efficiency of the Secretary." Each unit is followed by questions for class discussion and "Secretarial Assignments," deemed necessary in developing the "initiative and power of thought which are essential to the successful secretary" (p. iii). Four review projects at the end of the book afford opportunity for the student to determine how satisfactorily he can apply his knowledges and skills in various types of businesses.

Unfortunately, all but six or eight of the cuts in the book are of equipment and materials that are, or should be, in the secretarial-training laboratory. However, the book is well written and contains pertinent and practical information. The secretarial assignments and the review projects should be of interest to those responsible for the secretarial curriculum at the secondary-school or the college level.

ANN BREWINGTON

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*The school paper as an organ for expression.*—The teaching of journalism in high schools has been attacked frequently on the ground that its vocational emphasis is out of place in the secondary school. Journalism teachers have denied consistently the existence of a vocational aspect as the primary motive in the teaching of journalism at the secondary-school level. Otto and Marye<sup>2</sup> suggest the vocational aim but classify it as secondary. They believe that the fundamental purpose of the high-school course in journalism is to encourage the pupil to express his ideas clearly and concisely.

High-school teachers of journalism will welcome this revised edition of Otto's earlier volume, a book which is firmly established in the field of scholastic journalism. Three new chapters have been added, and the entire manuscript has been brought up to date by the substitution of timely illustrations and models.

The authors state in the Preface that the course should heighten the pupil's

<sup>1</sup> Madeleine L. Slade, Mabel Howatt Hurley, and Kathryn L. Clippinger, *Secretarial Training*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. vi+230. \$1.32.

<sup>2</sup> William N. Otto and Mary E. Marye, *Journalism for High Schools*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934. Pp. x+412. \$1.48.

sensitiveness to his social environment and offer him the school paper as an organ of expression. In an effort to aid teachers of journalism in their immediate problem of publishing a school paper, this book has enlarged on Otto's earlier chapter on publishing a high-school newspaper. Nearly half of the Otto and Marye book is devoted to the presentation of the problems and techniques of scholastic journalism.

One of the outstanding chapters is that giving the story of American journalism. Although necessarily brief, it provides an excellent summary of the development of the fourth estate in this nation. It seems to be slightly out of place, however, as it appears as the initial chapter in Part Two, which deals with the publishing of the school paper. It might have been placed more appropriately as the concluding chapter of Part One or perhaps as one of the introductory chapters of the volume. The authors have provided an adequate amount of material for group activities and individual study assignments.

Some teachers of journalism and advisers of publications may question the positiveness with which the authors suggest that the staff adviser should occupy the position of chief copyreader and check over all copy. In those high schools in which the newspaper is merely a convenient outlet for the English department, the faculty adviser will be expected to serve in the suggested position of copyreader. In some schools, however, the school paper is the recognized organ of pupil opinion, and pupils are held responsible, not for the editorial copy, but rather for the printed publication. There is much to be said in favor of pupil responsibility in contrast with adviser responsibility in the publication of a school newspaper.

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- COLE, LUELLA. *Psychology of the Elementary School Subjects*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1934. Pp. xvi+330. \$2.00.
- Experience in English Composition and Literature*, Vol. II, Grades IX-XII. Francis W. Parker School Studies in Education, Vol. X. Chicago: Faculty of the Francis W. Parker School (330 Webster Avenue), 1934. Pp. 480. \$1.00.
- Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*. Compiled for the Committee on Modern Language Teaching by Algernon Coleman. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. xii+368. \$2.75.
- GROSSNICKLE, FOSTER E. *The Teaching of Arithmetic in the Elementary School*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1934. Pp. 130. \$1.50.
- JUDD, CHARLES H. *Education and Social Progress*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934. Pp. xii+286. \$2.00.

- LEARY, DANIEL BELL. *Educational Psychology: An Application of Modern Psychology to Teaching*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1934. Pp. xiv+364. \$2.50.
- STODDARD, GEORGE D., and WELLMAN, BETH L. *Child Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xii+420. \$2.50.
- STRANG, RUTH. *Personal Development and Guidance in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1934. Pp. viii+342. \$4.00.
- WILSON, LESTER M., and KANDEL, I. L. *Introduction to the Study of American Education*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1934. Pp. viii+328. \$2.00.

## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BELL, LEWIS C., and SHAEFFER, GLENN N. *Introductory Metalworking Problems*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1934. Pp. 24. \$0.24.
- BETTS, EMMETT ALBERT. *Betts Ready to Read Tests: Manual of Directions*. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Co., 1934. Pp. ii+48 (mimeographed). \$1.00.
- BROWN, CLARA M., GORHAM, ETHEL R., and KEEVER, AURA I. *Clothing Construction*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934 (revised). Pp. xvi+312. \$1.80.
- BUTLER, ALFRED M. *Foundations of Physics*. Boston: M. Barrows & Co., 1934 (replacing *Household Physics*). Pp. viii+614. \$2.00.
- CARR, WILBERT LESTER, HADZSITS, GEORGE DEPUE, and WEDECK, HARRY E. *The Living Language: A Second Latin Book*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xvi+640. \$1.80.
- HOLZWARTH, CHARLES H., and PRICE, WILLIAM R. *First-Year French*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xviii+444.
- KIDGER, HORACE. *Directed Studies in American History*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. vi+190. \$0.56.
- MCCALL, WILLIAM A., COOK, LUELLE B., and NORVELL, GEORGE W. *Experiments in Reading To Accompany "Hidden Treasures in Literature"*: Book One, pp. x+138, \$0.40; Book Two, pp. x+118, \$0.40; Book Three, pp. x+116, \$0.40. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934.
- McMACKIN, FRANK J., MARSH, JOHN A., and BATEN, CHARLES E. *The Arithmetic of Business*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. x+486. \$1.48.
- MORGAN, FRANK M., and BRECKENRIDGE, W. E. *Solid Geometry*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. vi+437-722+vi. \$1.24.
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- RUSSO, JOSEPH LOUIS. *Nel paese del sole: Italian Readings for Beginners*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xiv+268. \$1.36.
- Singers in the Dawn: A Brief Supplement to the Study of American Literature.*

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*Sound: A Guide for Use with the Educational Sound Pictures* "Sound Waves and Their Sources" and "Fundamentals of Acoustics." Prepared for the University of Chicago by the Educational Research Staff of Erpi Picture Consultants, Inc., New York City, in Collaboration with Harvey B. Lemon and Hermann I. Schlesinger. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. iv+40. \$0.35.

*We Are the Builders of a New World.* Edited by Harry H. Moore. New York: Association Press (347 Madison Avenue), 1934. Pp. viii+166.

WEBSTER, HUTTON, and WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE. *World Civilization.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xxiv+844. \$2.12.

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AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

*Current Problems in Camp Leadership: A Workbook for Camp Counselors and Directors.* Edited by Jackson R. Sharman, Marjorie Hillas, and David K. Brace. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Press, 1934. Pp. 120. \$1.25.

GERWIG, GEORGE WILLIAM. *The Heart through Art: A Study of the Emotions.* School Betterment Studies, Vol. 4, No. 1. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Henry C. Frick Educational Commission (465 Union Trust Building), 1934. Pp. 122.

LEWIN, WILLIAM. *Photoplay Appreciation in American High Schools.* English Monograph of the National Council of Teachers of English, No. 2. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1934. Pp. xvi+122. \$1.00.

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Recent issues of the Office of Education:

Vocational Education Bulletin No. 19 (1934), Agricultural Series No. 17—*Agricultural Evening Schools* (revised). Pp. vi+14.

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*Federal Aid for the Equalization of Educational Opportunity.* Compiled by Helen M. Muller. The Reference Shelf, Vol. IX, No. 8. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1934. Pp. 122.

